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In this Issue . . . Women in petroleum refineries . . . Man-
power requirements . . . Sources of labor
supply . . . Earnings in ship construction

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

***** + HUGH S. HANNA, EDITOR + *****

CONTENTS

AUGUST 1943, Vol. 57, No. 2

Special articles:

	Page
Employment of women in petroleum refineries.....	197
Manpower requirements for 1943-44.....	204
Sources of labor supply for the war.....	212
Labor conditions in Greece.....	215
Government measures for improvement of living standards in El Salvador.....	233

Wartime policies:

Regulations for operation of coal mines under Government control.....	237
Replacement schedules for men of draft age.....	238
Employment of veterans.....	239
Compensation of salaried employees for overtime.....	239
Rules for admission of Mexican laborers as railroad track laborers.....	240
Compulsory-transfer orders covering labor in Canada.....	241

Wage and price stabilization:

Cost of living and price regulation in Mexico.....	244
Wage and price stabilization in New Zealand.....	250

Productivity of labor and industry:

Wartime productivity in mining industries.....	255
Recent productivity changes in copper mining.....	258

Social security:

Family allowances in various countries.....	265
Establishment of Social Security Bureau in Haiti.....	277

Cooperation:

Work of reconstruction cooperatives in France after first World War....	278
---	-----

Recreation:

Community recreation in 1942.....	284
-----------------------------------	-----

Industrial accidents:

Industrial injuries in April 1943.....	287
--	-----

Industrial disputes:

Strikes in June 1943.....	290
The coal disputes of 1943.....	290
Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, June 1943.....	295

Cost of living:

Cost of living in large cities, June 1943.....	298
--	-----

Labor laws and decisions:

War Labor Disputes Act.....	305
Law protecting post-war job rights of merchant-marine personnel.....	307
Recent decisions of interest to labor.....	307

Wage and hour statistics:

Earnings in ship-construction yards, fall of 1942.....	315
Hours and earnings in the fertilizer industry, January 1943.....	337
Salaries of clerical workers in 20 cities, April 1943.....	348
Brazil—Minimum monthly wage rates, 1943.....	349
Great Britain—Weekly earnings in various industries, January 1943.....	351

Labor turnover:

Labor turnover in manufacturing and mining, May 1943.....	353
---	-----

Building operations:

Estimated construction activity in continental United States, 1939-43.....	357
Building construction in urban areas of the United States, June 1943.....	359

Retail prices:

Food prices in May and June 1943.....	363
Electricity and gas: Price changes between March and June 1943.....	372

Wholesale prices:

Wholesale prices in June 1943.....	374
------------------------------------	-----

Trend of employment and unemployment:

Summary of reports for June 1943.....	379
Detailed reports for industrial and business employment, May 1943.....	383
Civilian labor force, June 1943.....	397

Labor chronology:

Chronology of labor events, April to June 1943.....	399
---	-----

<i>Labor conditions in Latin America</i>	233, 244, 277, 349
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<i>Recent publications of labor interest</i>	411
--	-----

AUG 30 '43

This Issue in Brief

Wage and price stabilization in New Zealand.

New Zealand has acted to stabilize wages, prices, and rents to avoid wartime inflation and has secured the cooperation of organized labor in carrying out its program. The stabilization regulations were issued late in 1942 and the plan provided for extending price ceilings on essential commodities and services. A special wartime price index was introduced which adequately records changes in prices of the commodities in general use. It forms the basis for any adjustment in wages and salaries to conform with alterations in living costs. Administration was placed under the Minister of Industries and Commerce assisted by an Economic Stabilization Commission. Page 250.

Recent productivity changes in copper mining.

The 1942 record output of recoverable copper was achieved with fewer than half the number of employees required to produce the previous maximum, in 1916. Productivity has thus far been maintained at peak pre-war levels, but it may decline as the quality of accessible ore deteriorates further and as manpower difficulties multiply. Page 258.

Employment of women in petroleum refineries.

The manpower shortage makes it necessary for petroleum refineries to consider the employment of women in jobs which they normally do not hold. At the present time, women comprise about 10 percent of total employment in petroleum refining and 5 percent of the total number of wage earners. In 1939, the corresponding figures were less than 2 percent and less than 0.4 percent. Page 197.

Community recreation, 1942.

Community recreation services continued to serve the normal needs of the general population in 1942. In many cities, programs were adjusted or expanded to meet the needs of the men in the armed forces and workers in war industries, or special services were provided for them. The total expenditures for recreation by community agencies was \$31,372,700, which was only slightly less than the expenditure in 1941, according to the annual report of the National Recreation Association. In addition to the recreational facilities provided by the organized community services, special services for the men in service, both at home and abroad, have been provided by the Special Services Division of the United States Army and the Welfare Division, Bureau of Navy Personnel of the United States Navy, while other agencies, both governmental and private, have assisted in providing special recreation facilities. Page 284.

Sources of labor supply for the war.

In April 1943 the Nation's total labor force—including the armed forces—exceeded the normal peacetime level by over 4 million. Premature withdrawal of boys and girls from school was a greater factor in the expansion than the increased number of adult women working. The labor force exceeded peacetime expectations by 1,300,000 teen-age boys and 450,000 teen-age girls as compared with 1,200,000 women over 20. Because a large proportion of the married women between 20 and 35 have young children and most single women of these ages have always worked, most of the expansion among adult women occurred in the groups over age 35. Such women should be the chief source of additional workers in the coming year—young persons now in school being needed largely as replacements in industry and the armed forces, and virtually all able-bodied men already being at work. Page 212.

Hours and earnings in fertilizer industry, 1943.

In January 1943 the wage earners in the fertilizer industry had hourly earnings averaging 55.0 cents, exclusive of overtime payments. The average in the North was 76.5 cents and that in the South was 45.2 cents. Office workers averaged 70.7 cents an hour. Working hours per week averaged 40.6—41.0 in the North and 40.4 in the South. Page 337.

Labor conditions in Greece.

Greece is primarily an agricultural country with more than half of the gainfully occupied population engaged in agricultural and related occupations. Small-scale enterprise predominates both in agriculture where land holdings are small and in industry; a large proportion of the gainfully employed are either self-employed or are working only with members of their families. The position of labor has been affected adversely by frequent changes in government. In some periods labor benefited temporarily, only to lose these advantages when a less liberal government succeeded. Wages were very low before the present war. However, the 8-hour day had gained wide acceptance in industry, with premium pay for overtime. The social-insurance system was developed in recent years. Inflation and mass starvation followed the conquest and partition of Greece by the Axis. Page 215.

Government measures for improvement of living standards in El Salvador.

Taking advantage of the favorable trade situation, the Government of El Salvador has been putting into effect measures designed to raise living standards in that country. Provision of sanitary housing, distribution of land on long-term credit, and assistance to small industry are some of the measures adopted. Page 233.

Earnings in ship-construction yards, 1942.

Straight-time hourly earnings in November 1942 averaged \$1.044 for first-shift workers in private yards engaged wholly or primarily in new ship construction. The highest level of earnings, \$1.135, was found on the Pacific Coast, and the lowest, 90.7 cents, on the Gulf Coast. The average for the Atlantic Coast region was \$1.048, for the Great Lakes region 99.4 cents, and for the Inland area 97.4 cents. Page 315.

Manpower requirements, 1943-44.

It is estimated that between July 1943 and July 1944 a minimum of 4,000,000 persons must be added to the armed forces and munitions industries—2,000,000 in the armed forces and 2,000,000 in the munitions industries. To meet these needs, 2,600,000 persons may be available because of declining labor requirements in civilian industries, leaving 1,400,000 to be drawn into the armed forces and nonagricultural employment. Page 204.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR AUGUST 1943

Employment of Women in Petroleum Refineries¹

Summary

TRADITIONALLY, the petroleum-refining industry has employed very few women. According to the 1939 Census of Manufactures, women comprised less than 2 percent of all persons engaged in the industry and fewer than 0.4 percent of all the wage earners. During wartime, however, it has become necessary for this industry like others to consider the substitution of women for men as the latter enter the armed forces or other industries. Although the reorientation in hiring policy is slow at first, women are eventually employed in production and other jobs for which they would not normally be considered. In the first World War, women constituted about 5 percent of the total number of wage earners in petroleum refineries after the second draft.² At the present time, the percentage of woman wage earners is approximately the same, but this figure will certainly be exceeded as the war continues. Including laboratory, office and other jobs as well as production jobs, women now comprise about 10 percent of total employment in petroleum refineries. In one region, however, the proportion of women averages 18 percent, and in individual refineries it approaches 25 percent.

Positions in Which Women are Employed

In the course of a survey of labor requirements in the manufacture of synthetic rubber, aviation gasoline, and other petroleum products, some information has been gathered on the extent of utilization of women and on the possibilities of further substitution for males. The data were obtained from Selective Service System Replacement Schedules prepared by refineries, from other personnel records, and from interviews with company officials. The total employment in the 74 companies on whose experience this article is based accounts for about one-fourth of the total for the entire industry.

An analysis of replacement schedules and other personnel information indicates that women are now being considered for a wide range of jobs in the laboratory and the refinery proper, as well as in the office (table 1). The largest numbers are employed as stenographers, general clerks, general laborers, and laboratory testers.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Productivity and Technological Development by James M. Silberman and Carolyn Gonyo Bernhard under the supervision of Irving H. Siegel.

² U. S. Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 12: The New Position of Women in American Industry, Washington, 1920 (p. 46).

TABLE 1.—Positions Occupied by Women in Petroleum Refineries¹

Division of plant, and job title	Number of women	Division of plant, and job title	Number of women	Division of plant, and job title	Number of women
All positions	2,627	Refinery operations—Con.		Laboratory—Con.	
Office	1,156	Control-board operator	35	Laboratory technician	43
Stenographer	273	Still operator	35	Laboratory inspector	18
General clerk	228	Package handler	34	Pilot-process plant operator	16
Typist or clerk-typist	103	Treater	28	Can and bottle washer	13
Machine operator	89	Utility helper	25	Draftsman	8
Accounting clerk	82	Pumper	19	Sample delivery girl	8
Secretary	49	Control tester	18	Test-engine operator	6
File clerk	40	Barrel filler, helper	17	Photographer	2
Switchboard (telephone) operator	37	Wax packer	17	Glass blower	1
Bookkeeper	28	Stillman helper	13	Patent technologist	1
Shipping clerk	21	Barrel filler	12		
Checker	11	Can filler	11	Maintenance	39
Messenger	10	Can manufacturer	11	Mechanic's helper (field repairs)	7
Office girl	10	Fireman	11	Tool stockman and binman	6
Senior clerk	8	Nailing-machine operator	10	Electrician's helper	4
Mail clerk	7	Welgher	10	Assistant research mechanic	2
Order clerk	7	Wick knitter	7	Boiler-shop learner	2
Pay-roll clerk	7	Inspector	6	Forewoman	2
Stock clerk	6	Stencil helper	6	Machinist's helper	2
Timekeeper, time-clerk	6	Apprentice gauger	5	Tool repairman	2
Yield clerk	6	Compressor operator	4	Valve repairman	2
Billing clerk	5	Machine operator (cooper shop)	4	Boiler-shop crane operator	1
Cashier	5	Package-preparation girl	3	Canvas girl	1
Cost clerk	5	Stock girl (packaging division)	3	Carpenter's helper	1
Personnel clerk	3	Barrel inspector	2	Helper, safety inspector	1
Purchasing clerk	3	Candle dipper	2	Instrument repairman	1
Accountant	2	Forewoman	2	Instrument-shop learner	1
Credit clerk	2	Spray painter	2	Machine-shop learner	1
Receptionist	2	Stabilizer operator, helper	2	Pipe fitter's helper	1
Supervisor	2	Tank car and truck loader	2	Research mechanic	1
Switchboard supervisor	2	Assistant forewoman	1	Tool delivery girl (truck driver)	1
Chart girl	1	Assistant storekeeper	1		
Credit woman	1	Grease compounder	1	Other	99
Distribution clerk	1	Matron	1	Janitress	36
Pipeline and products clerk	1	Oil-compounder apprentice	1	Nurse	15
Production clerk	1	Specialty maker	1	Cook	12
Supplies clerk	1	Stencil cutter	1	Counter girl	10
Not specified	91	Wick sewer	1	Cafeteria helper	9
Refinery operations	856			Reproduction operator	6
General labor	173	Laboratory	477	Librarian	3
Gauger	81	Tester, first and second class	173	Service-station operator	3
Packaging assistant	67	Laboratory trainee or assistant	86	Salesgirl	2
Trainee	46	Chemist	57	Waitress	2
Operator (filter press, centrifuge, etc.)	46	Tester, third and fourth class, and helpers	45	Elevator operator	1
Brander, sprayer, stenciler	40				
Candle packer	39				

¹ Based on replacement schedules and other personnel records of 74 companies accounting for about one-quarter of the total employment in the petroleum-refining industry. Some of the job titles in this table have been modified to reflect the substitution of females for males.

In table 2, the number and percentage of women in different parts of the refinery industry are shown. Although office workers represent a large proportion of the women employed (44 percent), almost one-third of the women are in production jobs. Relatively few (1.5 percent) are engaged in maintenance work.

Distributions are also presented in table 2 for the companies in each of the five regions into which the Petroleum Administration for War has divided the country:

I. Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, Delaware, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida.

- II. North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Michigan, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Kansas, Missouri, Kentucky, Tennessee, Oklahoma.
 III. New Mexico, Texas, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama.
 IV. Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado.
 V. Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Arizona.

The highest proportion of women in the labor force, 18 percent, is found in District V. Here 57 percent are engaged in refinery operations and only 15 percent in office work. In all other regions, woman office workers account for 50 percent or more of the total number of females employed. In districts II and IV, more than four-fifths of the women are engaged in office work.

TABLE 2.—Distribution of Women Employed in Petroleum Refineries, by Region and Type of Work ¹

Type of work	Women employed in—					
	All companies in survey	Petroleum Administration for War District				
		I	II	III	IV	V
All types.....	2,627	831	332	422	87	955
Refining operations.....	856	190	10	110	1	545
Maintenance.....	39	4	3	—	—	32
Laboratory.....	477	187	16	40	9	225
Office.....	1,156	416	278	248	72	142
Other.....	99	34	25	24	5	11
Percentage distribution						
All types.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Refining operations.....	32.6	22.9	3.0	26.1	1.1	57.1
Maintenance.....	1.5	.5	.9	—	—	3.3
Laboratory.....	18.2	22.5	4.8	9.5	10.3	23.6
Office.....	44.0	50.0	83.7	58.8	82.8	14.9
Other.....	3.7	4.1	7.5	5.7	5.8	1.1

¹ This table is based on data for 74 companies employing 27,646 persons. The distribution by regions (see text for boundaries of the Districts) is as follows: District I, 11,001; District II, 3,810; District III, 6,468; District IV, 1,196; and District V, 5,171.

Designing Jobs for Women

The employment of women in refining operations has been made possible in part by job dilution and the reorganization of job functions. Some companies have analyzed each job into unitary skills and recombined these elements into complete jobs which can be performed most satisfactorily by women. Usually, top operating men supervise the women and additional skilled men are placed on the same units to handle emergencies.

When refinery jobs are reorganized for women, it is common to group fewer duties into individual jobs, so that more women are required in proportion to men. In many cases women have replaced men on an equal basis, but in others the ratio of women to men on similar jobs ranges from 3:2 to 2:1. Some company officials consider women particularly suitable for refinery operations which characteristically require a sense of timing and an ability to keep track of several continuous duties. They are of the opinion that these qualities are carried over from the women's household experience in cooking and cleaning, enabling them to handle controls and keep records efficiently.

In designing jobs for women, it is necessary to take account of their limited physical strength. A few States have laws prohibiting the employment of women in jobs requiring heavy weight lifting. When refineries in these States employ women, they either reorganize the work so that the heavier tasks are assigned to men or install mechanical aids such as counterbalances, rollers, and conveyor belts. In some cases, the introduction of such labor-saving machinery may reduce labor cost. One company reported that when a short stretch of conveyor track was installed, it became possible to use 18 women to do the work formerly performed by 24 men.

Experience indicates that women may be employed in most refinery work other than that requiring considerable physical strength. In the offices, laboratories, and research departments of many refineries, women are replacing men on an equal basis. Often as many as half of the employees in these departments are women, most of them having been hired in the last year. At one plant, women make up 35 percent of the operating force, and it is expected that eventually they may constitute 65 percent of total personnel. Women have not been utilized so effectively in maintenance, engineering, and heavy general labor. They generally lack the physical qualifications, have insufficient education and experience in handling machinery and complicated equipment, and, of course, have no background in refinery work.

Recruitment of Women

Various methods have been used in recruiting women for refinery work. To ease the way, some plants have called general meetings of all male employees beforehand in order to explain the necessity of hiring women and the importance of utilizing them successfully. The employees were informed that they could contribute to the success of the program by voluntarily assuming some of the heavier duties.

For the most part, recruitment has been carried on through company personnel offices and the U. S. Employment Service. Many companies, however, have had success in requesting applications from the wives, daughters, and relatives of employees. Women from employees' families are likely to have acquired some previous knowledge of refinery operations through conversation in the home. Then, too, the greater utilization of local labor places less of a strain on local housing and transportation facilities.

Women with high-school and college training in chemistry and mathematics are sought for work as research assistants in the laboratories. To date, most of the women in refinery work are under 35 years of age, but the tendency to hire only young women is being relaxed somewhat. One refinery reported that a number of women between the ages of 55 and 60 years have proved to be satisfactory laboratory workers.

Training and Placement of Women

The policy of employing women has been determined largely by the labor situation confronting each refinery. Some companies anticipating a labor shortage have gradually added small numbers of women, giving them training on the job. In other cases, refineries have

suffered heavy losses of personnel in short periods of time to Selective Service and to nearby war plants. In such cases, it has been apparent that the only alternatives were to hire women immediately or to close down the refineries. The rapid introduction of large numbers of women has been accomplished successfully by laying careful advance plans for absorbing and training them.

One refinery, which has substantially increased its employment of women, has adopted an extensive training program. An expected manpower shortage necessitated the immediate hiring of women on a large scale. A woman personnel director was selected for interviewing, hiring, and supervising the training of new employees. On the basis of job descriptions prepared by the company, a number of tests were designed and basic job specifications were drawn up for the selection of woman applicants. The training program in this company is divided into three distinct parts—"induction," "training," and "provisional." This program, originally extending over a period of from 11 to 16 weeks, has been recently shortened considerably. These periods are described as follows:

Induction period: This period, during which women become acquainted with the facilities, layout, and general work routine of the refinery, was originally planned to last up to 4 weeks. As a result of improved teaching procedures, however, it is now completed by most women in 10 days or less. The equipment and organization of the refinery are explained by experienced operators who demonstrate the operation of the equipment and give instruction in general safety precautions. In both this period and the training period the classes are composed of from 8 to 10 girls. It has been found that, in groups of this size, the women are inclined to ask questions and participate more fully in discussion. During this period, women are paid the prevailing rates for common labor at the refinery.

Training period: This period, during which slightly higher rates are paid, extends from 6 to 8 weeks, according to the work. The women are grouped by the jobs they will eventually do and are put to work on dummy or obsolete equipment. They are instructed by practical operators and technical men who had earlier proved themselves patient and capable of teaching others. A manual of rules and procedures for refinery operations is given to each woman; the jobs are performed on the basis of the manual. During the training period, it is possible to determine which jobs the women are best qualified to perform successfully. Those most likely to adjust themselves to shift operations are segregated for this type of work. This group usually consists of married women in their late twenties or early thirties.

Among other duties, the women are taught to open and close valves, to fire stills and boilers, to start and stop pumps, to gauge tanks, to handle laboratory equipment, and to perform various other duties connected with refinery operations. They are trained to control fires and handle other emergencies which may arise in a refinery. Small fires are started, and women are taught to extinguish them with the proper equipment.

Provisional employment period: During this period, women are assigned to their permanent refinery jobs. These are the new jobs created especially for women by the regrouping of job functions. In the beginning, the reasonableness of the groupings had not been tested

by actual experience; therefore, the period was called "provisional." The company allows the women to set their own pace and encourages them to suggest adjustments as experience is gained. Usually the women are able to handle their jobs after 1 month's experience. The jobs are generally of a helper status. The women are paid the same rate as men for comparable work. When jobs are dissimilar, wage rates commensurate with responsibilities are established.

Another company, which was not faced with an immediate labor shortage, has taken a different approach to the employment of women. Here, women are hired in small numbers and gradually assimilated into the organization. New employees are first taken through the refinery and are given a rudimentary picture of the equipment and jobs. Three or four women are hired at one time for each department and generally are given manual tasks such as are required on operating jobs and in labor gangs. After this break-in period, which extends from 1 to 7 days, according to the job, women are usually able to do the work. In some cases, this company places women directly into men's jobs and pays them at the same rate. When they are unable to perform all of the functions of the heavier manual jobs, the jobs are broken down and the heavier tasks transferred to male employees. The men have generally been found cooperative. During the course of employment, the women acquire experience and skill on the job, and are graduated into more responsible operating and service positions as seniority is gained and vacancies occur. By careful selection and placement, women have been utilized successfully in this refinery, and the turnover rate has been low.

A 4-day training course has been adopted by another company. The course consists principally of conducted tours, during which refinery equipment is pointed out and the duties of the jobs explained. Explanatory signs placed on the equipment have proved useful. Daily classes are conducted with a view to giving the women a very elementary knowledge of chemistry and refining processes. The new employees also receive instructions in safety rules and regulations, including the importance of wearing appropriate clothing.

Several company officials have stressed the desirability of having women become accustomed during the training period to coming to work in appropriate clothing. Standard work uniforms generally are not required. For most operations, however, women wear denim coveralls or slacks, with a bandanna or cap for head covering. Gloves also are usually necessary.

Male employees taken from the refinery labor pool for upgrading into operative jobs are usually much better acquainted with refinery problems than are newly recruited women. From their experience in the labor gang, men know the refinery layout, where the tools are kept, how things are done, and to whom to go for direction and information. Since newly recruited women have not had time to acquire this basic information, they have to do so during their early training. They are given comprehensive and detailed instruction in the fundamentals of handling tools and tending equipment. For instance, all aspects of refinery technique, even though of an elementary nature, must be carefully pointed out. Training for unfamiliar duties, such as climbing tanks and towers, must be given gradually; the women are taught to climb lower equipment first and in the company of other

women so that they may gain confidence. Duties such as turning valves, without straining, and firing furnaces also require careful introduction.

Officials of several refineries report that they have found it necessary to place women on work where they act mainly as observers alongside male operators. This partial duplication of jobs is often the only answer to seniority rights already established in refineries operating under union contracts with well-defined seniority provisions. In general, refinery jobs progress according to seniority, from low unskilled jobs requiring considerable physical effort to more skilled positions. Although it would be easier to train women for intermediate jobs requiring less physical effort, doing so would violate seniority rights. It is, therefore, necessary to hire a number of women as extras, although there may be no immediate need for them. This practice permits women to acquire sufficient experience and seniority rights to step into higher jobs as openings occur. During times like the present, when turnover in lower jobs is rapid and when companies are expanding, women are often able to acquire significant seniority rights within relatively short periods.

The experience of the refineries points to the necessity of not only fitting the women into the jobs, but also adapting the refinery environment to the new working force. Special rest and change rooms should be provided close to the areas of work rather than outside the refinery gates. It is helpful to set up tables and benches right on the job in order that women may eat together if they prefer. Other aspects of the psychology and the needs of the women hired must be taken into account. Several refineries retain woman personnel advisers to facilitate adjustments and to forestall various difficulties. Supervisors who have effectively handled men may not be able to deal successfully with women. It is always necessary for supervisors to avoid any semblance of favoritism. Most company officials report that women respond better when directly supervised by men than when supervised by women.

Manpower Requirements for 1943-44¹

Summary

A MINIMUM of 4,000,000 persons must be added to the armed forces and to the munitions industries between July 1943 and July 1944, according to estimates prepared jointly by the War Manpower Commission and the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The armed forces are expected to increase by at least 2,000,000 in this period, and another 2,000,000 workers will be required in the munitions industries.² Two sources of labor will have to be drawn upon to meet these needs. One of these is an estimated 2,600,000 persons now employed in civilian industries whose labor will not be required by those industries next year because of shortages of materials and reductions in services. Even if all of these 2,600,000 find places in munitions industries or the armed forces—which is by no means assured—it will still be necessary to bring an additional 1,400,000 persons into non-farm employment and the armed forces to meet the total war labor requirements, plus whatever replacements may be necessary to maintain the strength of the armed forces under combat conditions.

The increases in munitions labor requirements are centered in local areas where critical manpower shortages already exist. Although the estimated additional requirements are smaller than the gains made in the past year, the problem of recruitment of labor is becoming increasingly difficult now that the more readily available persons have already been absorbed into the munitions industries.

Basis of Estimates of Labor Requirements

The estimates of labor requirements are not intended as forecasts of employment. They are based, as far as possible, on the war production program and on civilian needs for goods and services, and indicate the number of workers that will be required if these levels of output are to be attained. If new facilities are delayed, if supplies of materials prove inadequate, or if efforts to mobilize the necessary workers are not fully successful, actual employment may fall short of the estimated requirements.

Estimates of this type are useful in evaluating the feasibility of the production program in terms of available labor supply and in assessing the magnitude of the manpower-recruitment task. In comparing total labor requirements with available labor supply estimated for the Nation as a whole, however, it must be remembered that the jobs to be filled may be thousands of miles from the available workers, and perhaps in cities where housing, transit, and other community facilities are such as to discourage the influx of workers.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division on the basis of a joint statement of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the War Manpower Commission.

² These figures differ from those presented in the original statement because actual employment in the munitions industries in July 1943 was lower than was anticipated at the time the estimate was prepared, reflecting the failure of munitions production to meet schedules. Since labor requirements estimates for January and July 1944 were not affected, the indicated net addition to munitions industries employment over the coming year is increased. In other instances, more recently available data were substituted for July 1943 figures in the original statement.

A program which may seem feasible, when viewed in broad terms, may therefore require specific action to provide housing in certain areas or to move production into less-congested cities in order to bring workers and jobs together.

A general difficulty in making estimates of the labor requirements of production programs at the present time is the fact that such programs do not exist for many industries. This is particularly true of many civilian goods. It is, therefore, necessary to use such estimates of the probable output as are available.

ARMED FORCES

The increase of 2,000,000 in the net strength of the armed forces between July 1943 and July 1944 includes official estimates, as presented in appropriations hearings, of an expansion of the military services by 400,000 above the now-authorized level of 10,900,000. It does not take account of the number of men who will have to be withdrawn from the civilian population for replacements if the net strength of the armed forces is maintained at 11,300,000. In this sense, the above estimated requirements must be viewed as a minimum.

MUNITIONS INDUSTRIES

The estimated increase of 2,000,000 workers in the munitions industries—which include the metal-using industries, metal mining, and selected chemicals and rubber industries—is based on a realistic program of munitions production and war construction for the period July 1943 to July 1944. The production rate assumed for July 1944 is virtually identical with the rate implied in the May 1, 1943, official munitions and war construction schedule of the War Production Board, but was obtained as a result of three changes in that schedule. These changes, which were made at the suggestion of members of the staff of the War Production Board were as follows: (1) Certain program components not then completely scheduled were increased to allow for expected expansion of the program; (2) known cut-backs in program were taken into account in reducing certain components; and (3) the monthly forecast schedule of munitions output was revised to bring the early months of the fiscal year into line with the current level of output. The first two modifications of the program bring it substantially into line with revisions subsequently incorporated by the War Production Board in its production statement of June 1, 1943. It is believed, therefore, that the munitions production program underlying the labor-requirements estimates represents a realistic approximation of military production needs as summarized by the War Production Board.

It was assumed that output per man-hour would increase 10 percent in the calendar year 1943 and 2 percent in the first half of 1944. There are two reasons for this assumption: (1) The expectation that the utilization of labor in war plants will become more efficient when past difficulties in the flow of materials are eliminated, when the training of new workers is completed, and when the volume of work increases sufficiently to utilize the labor of workers hired in many plants in anticipation of expanded operations; and (2) the fact that the total output of the munitions industries includes both munitions and civilian

goods, which are not entirely comparable in value. Civilian goods are valued under more or less competitive market conditions. Munitions, on the other hand, are made for the Government alone; they are produced under wartime circumstances in which speed in delivery is frequently more important than price; they are made to a large extent in newly constructed facilities upon which higher annual amortization charges are permitted; and they are produced by workers who in many cases had to be drawn from other employment by the incentive of higher wages. Because of factors such as these, munitions are valued at a level somewhat higher than civilian goods. Even though the output is adjusted to eliminate price changes on both types of goods, the shift during the last 3 years from civilian to munitions production in these industries has resulted in an increase in dollar output somewhat greater proportionately than the increase in man-hours worked. This accounts for part of the increase in output per man-hour, as shown by the output measures used, of about 14 percent from the fourth quarter of 1941 to the fourth quarter of 1942. Since the munitions production of these industries will form an increasingly greater proportion of the total through 1943, there should be a further increase in the output per man-hour as measured in this manner, independent of any improvement in the utilization or efficiency of labor.

An increase in the workweek in the munitions industries from an average of 46.8 hours in January 1943 to 48 hours in July 1944 was also assumed. By April 1943 the average was 47.3 hours.

CIVILIAN AND OTHER LABOR REQUIREMENTS

In the nonmunitions industries predominantly serving our civilian economy, employment is expected to decline about $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions between July this year and July 1944, owing principally to limitations of facilities and raw materials. This decrease in employment of about 8 percent in the coming year, to a level approximately 13 percent below July 1942, will be the result of diverse trends in civilian activities. Thus, labor requirements will, it is anticipated, be little changed in agriculture, the food industries, textiles, clothing and leather products, fuel production, and public utilities. Moderately increased needs for workers in such industries as transportation, lumber, and production of containers, however, will be more than offset by declines in others. The declines will occur largely in trade and services, in construction and some building materials, in a miscellaneous group of manufacturing industries, in nonwar governmental activities, and in the self-employed group.

Despite prospects for increased agricultural production in the summer of 1944, the present estimates assume that farm manpower requirements in July 1944 probably will not exceed the estimated 12,100,000 employed in agriculture in July 1943. An increase of 100,000 workers in food manufacturing, however, may be necessary next July, depending in part upon the yield of the early crops for processing. In the belief that combined military and civilian needs for clothing, textiles, and shoes will be at least as large in 1944 as this year, no change has been anticipated in the level of manpower requirements for this group of industries. Labor requirements in the trade and service industries, on the other hand, are expected to fall off by perhaps 700,000, as the result of reduced consumer-goods output and a

substantial depletion in inventories which, to date, have cushioned the decline of employment in this field. Although urgent nonconstruction requirements continue to call for large volumes of lumber and wood products, the curtailment in wartime construction will cut labor requirements in the construction and other nonmetallic building-materials industries by about 800,000.

The net effect of such changes in nonagriculture employment and the armed forces is shown in the accompanying statement.

	Estimated number (millions)		
	July 1943	July 1944	Change
Armed forces.....	9.3	11.3	+2.0
Munitions industries.....	9.6	11.6	+2.0
Other nonagricultural industries.....	32.6	30.0	-2.6
Total.....	51.5	52.9	+1.4

The above increase of 1,400,000 represents the net increase in requirements for the armed forces and nonfarm employment, hence excludes two types of additional requirements. If the armed forces are maintained at authorized strength, considerably more than 2,000,000 persons will be inducted in the coming year in order to replace men who die or are taken prisoner and also a much larger number of men returned to civilian life. Many of the latter group will be available for employment. The former will represent a drain upon the labor resources of the country which is not reflected in the net change in manpower requirements. A comparable problem on the civilian side is the fact that the indicated change in employment represents only the net increase over and above replacements necessary to make up for mortality of persons in the labor force and for retirements.

From other points of view the net changes in manpower requirements that have been presented do not fully indicate the extent of the manpower mobilization that will be necessary to meet those requirements. In the first place, the gross number of workers that will have to be placed in jobs is much larger because of turnover. In the second place, the increases in labor requirements are largely concentrated in a few industries that are in turn centered in local labor markets where manpower shortages already exist. The decreases in labor requirements, on the other hand, are in industries that are widely dispersed throughout the country, with the result that a considerable number of released workers will not be available for transfer to the expanding industries.

Sources of Manpower

The sources of labor supply for meeting the estimated minimum additional labor requirements of munitions industries and the armed forces from July 1943 to July 1944 may be summarized as follows:

Transfers from other industries.....	2,600,000
Net increase in nonfarm employment and the armed forces.....	1,400,000
Total.....	4,000,000

As indicated above, the net decline in employment in industries other than the munitions industries may approximate 2,600,000 workers in the coming fiscal year. These workers will be available to meet the expanding manpower needs of the armed forces and the munitions industries, either directly or by replacing other workers. The construction workers who will be released by the general decline in construction requirements represent the largest single group of workers who can be readily absorbed in the munitions industries.

If 2,600,000 persons can be drawn from nonagricultural industries other than munitions for the armed forces and the munitions industries, as indicated above, it will therefore be necessary to effect a net increase of 1,400,000 in nonfarm employment and the armed forces.

With the reservoir of unemployed already down to approximately 1,000,000 persons, the unemployed can no longer be considered as a source for meeting the expanding labor needs of the war economy. Because of between-job shifts resulting from changes in production schedules and other causes, it is assumed that unemployment will continue to fluctuate around 1,000,000. The estimates of unemployment and agricultural employment in July 1944 allow for a somewhat lower seasonal peak than in July 1943. If this occurs, the net increase required in the total labor force between July 1943 and July 1944 will be approximately 1,100,000.

More than half, or about 700,000, of this increase will be provided by the normal increment to the labor force resulting from population growth. The remaining half must be composed of persons who would not normally be in the labor force. —

The principal remaining source of additional workers at the present time consists of women who are now occupied as homemakers or who are unoccupied. No other group in the population can provide any substantial number of new entrants. It is not possible, however, to count to any appreciable extent on older women or those responsible for the care of young children. The most available group consists of the 6,400,000 nonfarm housewives under the age of 55 who are not responsible for the care of children under 14 years of age.

Changes in Manpower Problems

The task of mobilizing manpower so as to obtain a net increase of 4,000,000 for the armed forces and the munitions industries in the coming fiscal year does not appear large when compared with the task now almost completed for the year ending July 1943, even if the stated requirements are viewed as minimum manpower needs. During the year July 1942–July 1943, 7,700,000 persons will have been added to the armed forces, munitions industries, and agriculture. Actually, the task of mobilizing 4,000,000 in the next 12 months will be more difficult than the comparison indicates.

It is obvious that, in the process of adjustment to wartime labor demands to date, those most readily available have been mobilized. Unemployment has been reduced by more than 8,000,000 in the past 3 years. The workers added to the armed forces were mostly younger men with the least family responsibilities, and those who had less opportunity to acquire necessary industrial skills. The nonworkers added to the labor force have been those who were most ready to seek

work, those living in areas where jobs were open or those most ready to migrate to such areas, and those who were best able to qualify for employment. As the most available workers are absorbed there remains a residuum of less-adaptable persons, whose mobilization involves increasing difficulty.

LOCAL CHARACTER OF MANPOWER PROBLEMS

The labor resources of the Nation as a whole appear more than adequate for all essential needs to mid-1944, but very serious local problems of labor supply exist.

The expanding labor requirements of war industries are largely concentrated in critically stringent local labor markets—centers of war production like Buffalo, Seattle, or Detroit. In July 1943, over half of the employees in the final assembly of aircraft, aero-engines and propellers, and more than two-thirds of the employees in shipyards worked in areas of current acute labor shortage or areas in which labor shortage is anticipated within several months. By January 1944, the aircraft plants in these areas will have to find 130,000 additional workers, and the shipyards will have to find another 50,000 persons. A large part of our war production program is thus seriously affected by local labor shortages.

The adequacy of labor resources elsewhere in the country does not help materially, because the further influx of population into these areas is limited by the amount of housing and other community facilities which can be provided. The problem is complicated by the fact that in critical labor-market areas it will be necessary to expand employment in civilian industries, which are declining nationally, in order to maintain civilian services at the minimum required to support expanding war industry. A large part of the necessary increase in labor supply must be recruited, therefore, from relatively restricted areas—in large part from homemakers representing only a fraction of the 6,400,000 nonfarm housewives under the age of 55 who are not responsible for the care of young children.

Full production can be achieved in the year ahead only by mobilizing to the utmost the labor resources of these local areas and by diverting as much war and civilian production as possible to areas with more adequate labor supply.

Manpower Task for 1943-44

The foregoing analysis shows that a total of 4,000,000 additional persons must be added to employment in the munitions industries and to the armed forces from July 1943 to July 1944. Moreover, this must be accomplished despite the greatest stringency in the manpower market yet faced by the Nation. Previously it has been possible to draw heavily upon reserves of unemployed who could be readily absorbed into employment in areas near their homes. In the coming year, with no reserve of available unemployed, we face an intensive task of transferring workers from industry to the armed forces, from industry to industry, and from area to area.

Even in critical areas and industries, young men will be withdrawn from industry for the armed forces; replacements by older workers or

women will be necessary for such workers, and these replacements will be additional to the 4,000,000 estimated net needs. Further, in critical areas, employment in civilian trades and services must in many cases be expanded rather than contracted.

Declining employment in civilian industries will yield workers to meet new demands only if such workers, who for the most part are not in critical labor markets, can be physically transferred to the localities where they are needed. The recruitment of additional women not now in the labor force will be more difficult in the coming year in view of the fact that those most able to take employment have already been recruited.

A manpower program to meet next year's problem must emphasize intensive and selective measures. Full utilization of workers and elimination of labor hoarding have been assumed in the estimates; if these objectives are not achieved, the labor need will be increased. Replacement of younger industrial workers entering the armed forces requires an intensification of training and upgrading activities on a broad scale. Turnover must be kept at a minimum in order to avoid loss of time and efficiency.

Intensive recruitment measures are necessary to assure full utilization of women, Negroes, and other available labor reserves in shortage areas. While transfer of workers from area to area should be made only after full utilization of local reserves, such transfers will be required in many areas. In such cases, every effort should be made to transfer as much production as possible out of areas to which it is necessary to transfer workers. The stringency of the present manpower situation requires that these objectives be attained with a minimum of disruption in employment and production. Positive measures are required to reduce undesirable migration, to channel hiring, to train workers, and to improve utilization of the present labor force.

Estimated Manpower Requirements, July 1942 to July 1944 ¹

Item	Estimated requirements (in millions)				
	July 1942	January 1943	July 1943 ²	January 1944 ³	July 1944 ⁴
Total manpower requirements.....	60.6	59.4	64.8	62.3	65.9
Armed forces ⁵	3.8	7.0	9.3	10.8	11.3
Civilian labor force.....	56.8	52.4	55.5	51.5	54.6
Unemployed.....	2.8	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.0
Employed.....	54.0	51.0	54.3	50.5	53.6
Agriculture.....	11.7	8.7	12.1	8.7	12.0
Nonagricultural employment.....	42.3	42.3	42.2	41.8	41.6
Munitions and munitions materials industries ⁶	7.8	9.1	9.6	11.3	11.6
Transportation, fuel, and utilities ⁷	4.3	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.5
Federal war agencies ⁸	1.0	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.0
Construction and building materials ⁹	3.1	2.3	2.1	1.3	1.3
Food ¹⁰	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.5
Textiles, clothing, and leather ¹¹	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8
Trade and service ¹²	10.9	10.6	10.6	10.1	9.9
All other ¹³	11.0	10.5	9.7	8.6	8.0

¹ Sources: July 1942 and January and July 1943 data for civilian labor force, unemployed, employed, agricultural and nonagricultural employment, from Monthly Report on the Labor Force, Bureau of the Census. July 1942 and January and July 1943 data for components of nonagricultural employment from Bureau of Labor Statistics. July 1943 data are preliminary. Data on armed forces from published statements. Estimates for July 1943, January and July 1944, except armed forces, by Bureau of Labor Statistics and War Manpower Commission, Bureau of Program Requirements. All data apply to approximately the tenth day of the month, except the armed-forces figures which relate to the first day of the month.

² Estimated.

³ Net strength. Excludes net attrition resulting from battle casualties or other causes.

⁴ Includes all metal-using industries, metal mining, coke-oven products, abrasives, selected chemicals and rubber industries.

⁵ Includes transportation and public utilities, coal mining, and petroleum production, drilling and refining.

⁶ Excludes navy yards and manufacturing arsenals included in munitions group, as well as off-continent and force-account construction employment of war agencies.

⁷ Includes contract construction, Federal force-account construction, lumber, quarrying, asphalt products, paints and varnishes, and building materials in the stone, clay and glass group.

⁸ Includes food manufacturing and tin cans.

⁹ Includes textiles, apparel, leather, rayon and allied products, and rubber boots and shoes.

¹⁰ Includes the Bureau of Labor Statistics trade and finance, service, and miscellaneous groups.

¹¹ Includes all other manufacturing, all other Government, and self-employed and domestic servants after adjustment for statistical differences in Census and Bureau of Labor Statistics series.

Sources of Labor Supply for the War¹

UNDER the impact of war, the Nation's labor force has increased considerably over normal peacetime expectations. In April 1943 there were over 4,000,000 more persons in the labor force or in the armed forces than would have been expected on the basis of proportions found in 1940.

Contrary to general belief, the early withdrawal of boys and girls from school was a greater factor in the expansion of the labor force than was the increase in the number of women working. In April 1943 there were about 1,800,000 more teen-age persons in the labor market than would be expected on the basis of the school-attendance habits of 1940. The enlistment and induction of youths of 17, 18, and 19 years in the armed forces account in part for the fact that more than 1,300,000 of the young people who left school were males and that the labor-market participation of boys under 20 is at least 50 percent greater than it was in 1940. Girls withdrawing from school were less numerous but numbered nearly 450,000 and involved employment of at least a quarter again as many girls as would have been in the labor market on the basis of 1940 ratios.

Withdrawals from school can no longer be counted upon as a primary source of labor supply to meet the requirements of the next year. Over the decades there has been a continuous increase in the proportion of young persons in school. Industry has come to rely upon this higher educational level in filling the responsible production jobs. Young persons now in school will be required for the most part to serve as replacements in industry and in the armed forces.

During the past 3 years 1,200,000 males 20 years of age or over have also been recruited. Of these, about 750,000 are in the age groups between 20 and 54 years, where the proportion in the labor market has always been high. About 97 percent of the men in these age groups are now in the labor force and, since there is always a small percentage in institutions or unable to work, it may be assumed that there will be no significant increase in the labor force from men in these age brackets for the duration of the war.

The social-security program would normally have led to a larger proportion of retirements at 65 years of age than occurred before old-age insurance became effective. Instead, larger proportions of the men over 65 years of age are working now than were working in 1940. While some further increase in the employment of older men may be expected, the number will most certainly not exceed a few hundred thousand; and from the point of view of a conservative plan with reference to labor supply, it will be wise to assume no further increase in this age group.

The number of women 20 years of age or over who have entered the labor force has exceeded normal expectations by about 1,200,000. Almost all of the excess has occurred among women over 35 years of age. With respect to women 20 to 24 years of age there has been no significant increase in the proportion in the labor force. This is not altogether surprising, for among single women in this age group

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Occupational Outlook Division.

labor-market participation normally has been high. Moreover, substantial proportions of the single women in their early twenties are responsible for the operation of a home; and many married women have infant children and should not be expected to be available for paid employment. There has been a very moderate increase over normal expectations in the number of women 25 to 34 years of age in the labor market, but by no means so large a gain as would have taken place had all married women without children sought jobs (certainly not more than one-tenth of those who were not already working have come into the labor force). It seems probable that throughout these younger age groups the liability of husbands to the draft may have acted as a check upon entrance into the labor force. This would be especially true in those localities where draft boards have differentiated between the draft status of a man whose wife is working and that of a man whose wife is not working but whose family responsibilities and health would permit her to work.

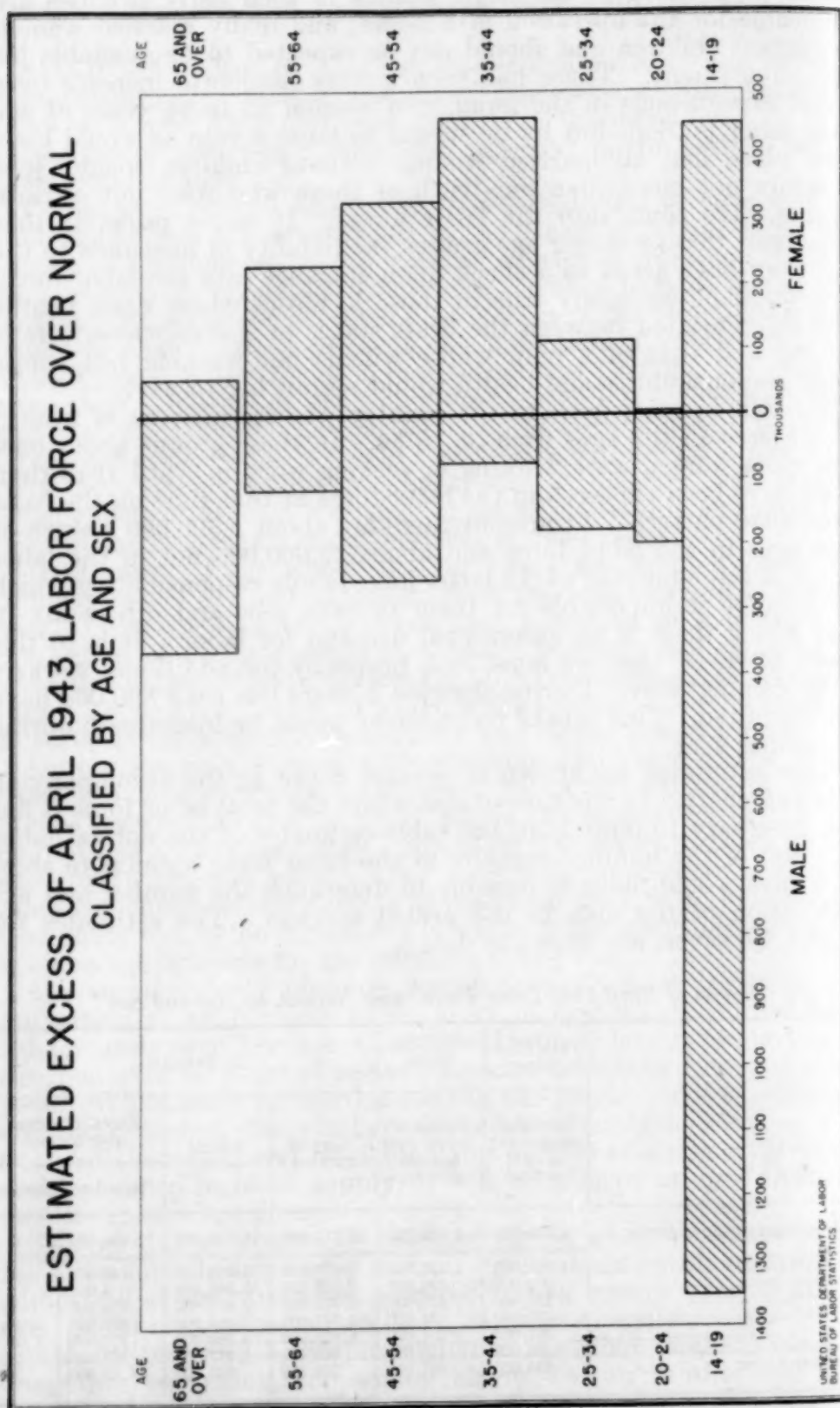
Thus far, in most parts of the country, the recruitment of women has centered in the ages from 35 to 54. In these groups about one-sixth more women were working or seeking work in April 1943 than would have been expected in the labor force at that time on the basis of the 1940 pattern. At present there are about 5,500,000 women of these ages in the labor force and about 12,000,000 not in the labor force. A large number of the latter have family responsibilities which would make it impossible for them to take jobs and others are in areas where there is no exceptional demand for labor. It is to this group, however, that we must look primarily for additional workers in the coming year. During the past 3 years less than 800,000 have been recruited. This rate of recruitment would be inadequate during the coming year.

These estimates are shown in greater detail in the accompanying table and chart. In the case of males and the total labor force it has been necessary to omit from the table estimates of the normal labor force and of the number actually in the labor force because to show the figures would make it possible to determine the number and age distribution of the men in the armed services. The estimates for females, however, are shown in detail.

Excess of April 1943 Labor Force¹ over Normal, by Age and Sex

Age	Total labor force	Males	Females			
	Excess of actual over normal number	Excess of actual over normal number	Normal number	Actual number	Excess of actual over normal	
					Number	Percent
Total, 14 years of age and over....	4,166,000	2,532,000	14,119,000	15,753,000	1,634,000	11.6
14-19 years.....	1,801,000	1,352,000	1,647,000	2,096,000	449,000	27.3
20-24 years.....	202,000	199,000	2,852,000	2,855,000	3,000	.1
25-34 years.....	291,000	177,000	3,773,000	3,887,000	114,000	3.0
35-44 years.....	530,000	74,000	2,757,000	3,213,000	456,000	16.5
45-54 years.....	581,000	254,000	1,875,000	2,202,000	327,000	17.4
55-64 years.....	345,000	115,000	947,000	1,177,000	230,000	24.3
65 years and over.....	416,000	361,000	268,000	323,000	55,000	20.5

¹ Unofficial estimates of the number of persons in the armed forces classified by age were added to estimates of civilian labor force from the Bureau of the Census to obtain estimates of the total labor force in April 1943.



Labor Conditions in Greece¹

GREECE is primarily an agricultural country, with more than half of the gainfully employed population engaged in agricultural and related pursuits and only about 16 percent in industry. Nevertheless, Greece is the most industrialized country in the Balkans, producing various food products, textiles, tobacco products, chemical goods, and building materials.

The country underwent a progressive, though not uninterrupted, process of territorial expansion between the establishment of the Kingdom in 1830 and 1923 when the Treaty of Lausanne made new changes in the frontiers. The economic condition of the country was profoundly affected by vast migrations which, beginning with the Balkan wars, culminated in the period 1922-24 when more than a million Greeks were ejected from Asia Minor and had to find homes within the Greek State. This influx of Greek refugees, most of whom were rural workers, presented the difficult problem of finding a means of livelihood for them. The refugee problem still had not been settled by 1937, when thousands were still homeless, but a plan was adopted in that year which provided for a continuing program for the construction and repair of houses in rural settlements, for the supply of livestock and farm implements, and for the construction of minor waterworks. The expenditure was to be met out of the sums refunded to the Agricultural Bank by refugees settling in rural districts and by a loan from that bank. Urban settlement was to be carried out on similar lines.

During the past 30 years there have been frequent political changes both under the monarchy and during the life of the Republic. These changes have naturally affected the position of labor, which in some periods was benefited temporarily, only to lose such advantages when a less liberal government succeeded. During the period covered by this article, members of the same ruling house have been on the throne with the exception of the period 1924 to 1935, when the country had a republican form of government. The restoration of the monarchy in 1935 brought back George II to the throne, but less than a year later Prime Minister Metaxas became head of the State and remained in power until the outbreak of war in Greece. Since the occupation of Greece by Germany in April 1941, the Greek people have been subject to a three-way control. Those Greeks—particularly seamen—who are outside their native country are governed by the Greek Government-in-exile, which first maintained headquarters in London and later moved to Cairo, Egypt; the population remaining in Greece is subject both to the orders of the army of occupation and to those of the puppet Greek government, acting under Axis pressure.

The area of Greece in 1923, after the territorial changes brought about by the Treaty of Lausanne, was 129,976 square kilometers and the density of the population 47.74 per square kilometer. After the fall of Greece in April 1941 Bulgaria annexed eastern Macedonia and Thrace, with an area of 16,682 square kilometers and a population of

¹Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Anice L. Whitney and Margaret H. Schoenfeld. The authors wish to acknowledge the assistance of the International Labor Office, which supplied the data on which the section on social insurance is based.

590,000. These areas were the richest tobacco-producing lands in Greece. Other areas were seized by Fascist Albanians and by Italy; Germany occupied the Aegean Islands, with the exception of Samos, and all of Crete except its eastern tip which the Italians were allowed to hold. All that remains of Greece at present, which is under the army of occupation, is the mainland, Thessaly, and the Peloponnesus, with an area of 60,263 square kilometers and a population of 3,546,185.

At the end of the last century the population of Greece was approximately two and one-half million; at the time of the general census in 1928 the population, largely as a result of territorial changes and migrations, had increased to 6,204,684, of whom 1,233,576 were inhabitants of the islands. A census was taken in 1940 but the results have not been published, except the figure for the total population, which numbered 7,336,000.

Conditions in Agriculture

Although a high percentage of the gainfully employed population was engaged in agriculture, the arable land in Greece was relatively restricted because of the mountainous character of the country, only about one-fifth of the total area being productive. Under pre-war conditions a large proportion of the land under cultivation was devoted to cereals but the amount produced was not enough to meet the consumption requirements of the population. In fact, the country generally was not self-sufficient in foodstuffs, even fresh and preserved fish being imported, although Greece has one of the longest coast lines in the world in proportion to its area.

Land holdings in Greece are generally small. At the time of the 1928 census the holdings of 565,783 cultivators, out of a total of 653,397, ranged from 1 to 20 stremmas (0.2461 to 4.922 acres). The prevalence of small holdings dates from the year 1917 when large landed properties were expropriated by the Government and divided into small plots which were distributed to the peasants. The expropriations were first applied in Old Greece (particularly in Thessaly) and were later extended to Macedonia and Thrace, the measure affecting most of the properties exceeding 246 acres. The farmers who were allotted land were not supplied with cattle or modern agricultural machinery, so that primitive methods of land cultivation were continued, and this, together with the requisitioning of practically all the cattle in 1920-22 during the war with Turkey, resulted in still further depressing the industry.

In 1928, the Government took various measures to improve the agricultural situation, including the provision of seeds suitable to the Greek soil and the authorization of an Agricultural Bank to assist farmers by granting them loans at a low rate of interest. An act, passed in 1939, to settle the question of land ownership arising out of the expropriations of more than 20 years previously provided that persons who had been settled under the plan of agrarian reform should receive the freehold of the land. As soon as the law went into effect, title was given to the land in all cases where the transfer had been completed, even if the price had not been paid in full or the deed of transfer published, with the result that it would no longer be possible to dispossess proprietors of such holdings. The subdivision of holdings was prohibited by the law, which also prevented any return to the

system of large estates, the abolition of which was the first step in agrarian reform. Outright sale of such holdings was prohibited by the law in order to check the flight from the land which had been a marked feature of Greek life for 3 decades. The law was cited by Premier Metaxas as constituting not only a step toward the future agricultural development of Greece but also towards its economic and social progress.

Occupations of the Labor Force

Of the total population of 6,204,684 in Greece in 1928, 2,745,508 or about 45 percent were gainfully occupied. Of this number 1,460,700 were engaged in agriculture including stock raising, 429,831 in industrial enterprises, 14,941 in fishing, and 6,340 in mines and quarries. Males represented 71.8 percent of the total gainfully occupied workers, and females 28.2 percent. The prevalence of small-scale industry is shown by the fact that more than one million persons were self-employed or working only with members of their own family, while only about 25 percent of the total number of gainfully employed were wage earners.

Industrial development in Greece was hampered by the lack of a native coal supply and only a small hydroelectric development and by the necessity for importing many raw materials. During 1937, the latest year for which information on industrial activity is available, the greatest activity as measured by the increase in production was in the mechanical industry, followed by the textile, chemical, building material, and tobacco industries. The textile industry at that time was said to be the most important in Greece. Only about one-third of the country's needs in industrial goods were covered by home production before the war.

The following table shows the distribution of the gainfully occupied population in 1928, by industry or profession and by industrial status.

TABLE 1.—*Gainfully Occupied Population in Greece, by Branch of Activity and by Industrial Status, 1928*

Industry or profession	Em- ploy- ers	Persons working only with members of their own fam- ily	Self- em- ployed	Persons working with the families of their employ- ers	Salaried em- ployees	Wage earners		
						Total	Male	Female
All industries.....	147,949	430,847	610,122	562,330	165,773	686,532	520,107	166,425
Agriculture.....	75,644	376,715	263,637	480,293	1,491	95,618	72,471	23,147
Stock raising, hunting.....	5,991	26,701	63,918	43,979	12	26,701	23,068	3,633
Fishing.....	1,217	683	7,037	1,070	9	4,925	4,918	7
Mines and quarries.....	107	19	151	75	204	5,784	5,430	354
Manufacturing.....	29,060	12,741	121,970	19,535	4,310	242,215	184,046	58,169
Transportation and communica- tion.....	3,818	1,410	30,234	2,540	17,610	51,146	50,878	268
Finance.....	1,913	316	6,061	452	13,324	871	832	39
Commerce.....	25,499	11,468	85,415	13,311	16,488	33,379	32,411	968
Personal service and domestic service.....	2,023	467	6,284	631	98	48,067	10,755	37,312
Liberal professions.....	2,677	327	25,415	444	52,643	4,463	1,917	2,546
Public services.....					41,029	3,443	3,237	206
Not reported.....					18,555	169,920	130,144	39,776

Governmental Administrative Agencies

The general administration of labor laws and other questions relating to labor was in the Department of Labor and Social Welfare of the Ministry of National Economy until 1936 when an Under-Secretariat for Labor was established as an autonomous body. The following year a labor council was created in the General Labor Directorate of the Under-Secretariat, to act as an advisory committee on bills and draft decrees relating to the regulation of labor and on measures to be adopted to improve working and living conditions, as well as to make such investigations as the Minister should direct. This council apparently superseded a similar council established in the former Department of Labor and Social Welfare in 1934. Systematic research on labor questions was not provided for until a Bureau of Labor Statistics was created in September 1940, shortly before the invasion of the country.

In pre-war years Greece had a National Economic Council. In 1936 the legislation was amended to provide for a council of 30 members under the presidency of the Prime Minister. The council was required to give its opinion on any question of an economic, financial, or social character submitted to it by the Government, to prepare legislation, and to carry out inquiries. The membership was divided into 5 committees: Industry, commerce and transport, public economy, currency and credit, and social and labor policy.

A Ministry of National Welfare was created by a decree of October 1940, which merged the Public Health Service and the Social Welfare Service. The new ministry was made responsible for the institution of measures to protect demobilized men and their families. It was to provide for housing of necessitous refugees and for low-cost housing of workers. A technical council of nine members was to supervise various inquiries undertaken by the Ministry or other social hygiene and assistance institutions.

After the invasion of the country and before Athens fell, King George II had withdrawn to England and a Government-in-exile was established there, performing the functions of government to the extent possible under the circumstances, including promulgation of laws. In Greece the Germans formed a puppet government under Gen. George Tsolakoglu. The Prime Minister of Greece (in exile) took over the portfolio of the Minister of Labor and informed the International Labor Office that one of his tasks would be to form a special agency of the Greek Government for the study of the measures to be taken to deal with problems that would arise immediately after the cessation of hostilities and with problems of post-war reconstruction. The agency was to include representatives of employers and employees.

Labor inspection.—The labor inspection service was organized under the Ministry of National Economy (Directorate of Labor and Social Welfare) in 1922. The law establishing this service provided that the labor inspectors and the police authorities, in default of officials of the labor inspectorate, should be responsible for the supervision and enforcement of provisions regarding the safety and hygiene of the workers with the exception of the acts regulating work in mines, quarries, and earthworks, and on railways. An amendment to the law passed in 1934 provided for the establishment of a Labor Inspection Council

which had general supervision of the work of the inspectorate and could recommend measures for the better application of the acts and ministerial orders, settle disputes of a general nature arising between wage earners and employers, and supervise the work of inspectors and other officials of the inspectorate. The number of inspectors was increased in 1935 and three posts for woman inspectors were created; in 1937 the inspection service was again reorganized, the country being divided into four departments for inspection purposes with divisional inspectors as the heads of these departments.

Employment agencies.—Employment exchanges for the placement of wage-earning and salaried employees and servants of all kinds in enterprises and establishments were established by a decree of September 22, 1922. The offices, under the Ministry of National Economy (Directorate of Labor and Social Welfare), were established in 7 of the principal cities. Representatives of the chamber of commerce and industry and of the workers' organization were appointed to the managing committee of each office. The number of employment offices was increased by a decree of October 8, 1932, which provided that employment exchanges might be opened in towns of more than 20,000 inhabitants and in exceptional cases in smaller towns. No fee could be charged by the offices, and the law provided that within 1 year all fee-charging employment offices within the district of a public employment office should be closed. Employment offices were prohibited from giving their services in cases of strikes and lockouts, if the parties to a dispute had refused to submit the dispute to a public authority or a conciliation committee or to accept the settlement or decision rendered by such a body. In 1935, a law provided that an employment exchange could be created under each factory inspector or assistant labor inspector but that the number of exchanges might not exceed 30 for the whole country. This law also provided that advisory committees were to be appointed for each employment exchange and a central advisory council for the allocation of labor could be established in the Ministry of National Economy if it did not entail further charge on the budget—otherwise duties in this connection could be carried out by the Labor Inspection Council. A special employment office for seamen was established in 1926 in Piraeus, and in 1933 such offices were opened in four other ports; the managing committees of these offices had equal representation of shipowners' and seamen's organizations, in addition to the director.

Wages, Hours, and Working Conditions

Little official information was issued in Greece, prior to the war, showing the average wages and hours. Owing to this lack, presentation of the facts regarding the status of the working people is hampered.

WAGES

In 1938, the general minimum daily wage was 55 drachmas. On the international exchange the drachma was worth slightly less than 1 cent in United States currency. Therefore in terms of United States money the minimum daily pay of the Greek worker was slightly higher than the hourly pay of American common labor.

Owing to differences in the purchasing power of money in the two countries, however, it should not be inferred that the Greek worker

could buy only one-eighth as much with his minimum daily wage as the American worker could obtain with a day's pay. Unfortunately there is not sufficient information on relative costs to make a scientific comparison as to how much better off the American worker was, but it is an established fact that living standards were always quite low in Greece as measured by American standards.

Cost of living.—The absence of data showing year-to-year changes in average earnings of Greek workers also makes it impossible to calculate the changes in real wages within Greece, notwithstanding that a cost-of-living index was computed before the present war, as shown in table 2 for 1931-40.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Cost of Living in Greece, 1931-40¹

Year	Index numbers (1931=100) of—				
	All commodities ²	Food	Fuel and light	Clothing	Rent
1931.....	100	100	100	100	100
1932.....	106	108	104	112	100
1933.....	114	118	110	122	100
1934.....	116	120	115	120	100
1935.....	117	122	117	119	100
1936.....	121	129	121	118	100
1937.....	131	141	138	123	100
1938.....	130	138	138	129	100
1939.....	130	137	133	131	100
1940.....	² 142	² 154	² 148	² 144	² 100

¹ From 1931 onward the index covered food, fuel and light, clothing, rent, and miscellaneous items.

² Data are for the period, January through November 1940.

The cost of living increased steadily from 1931 (the base period) to 1935. Between 1936 and 1937 the rate of increase was accelerated—a 10-point advance. From 1937 up to the outbreak of the war in Europe the index was stable, but in 1940 for Athens only it rose 12 points to 142. It is unlikely that the economic position of Greek labor deteriorated in the middle 1930's to the extent suggested by the cost-of-living index alone, as the wage position of workers was being ameliorated in the pre-war years through the establishment of minimum standards under collective agreements.

Wages in industry.—As already stated, Greece did not issue statistics of average earnings. Table 3 shows the range in daily wages, by industry, in Athens and Piraeus in 1938. In a few instances the minimum daily wage was higher than the general minimum of 55 drachmas. For example, in quarries the minimum rates were 85 drachmas daily in Athens and 67 drachmas in Piraeus, and in barrel factories 72 drachmas in Athens and 90 drachmas in Piraeus. The upper limit in daily wages varied widely, ranges of from 55 to approximately 100 drachmas being common and the highest being 55 to 575 drachmas in wool-spinning mills in Athens.

TABLE 3.—Daily Wages, by Industry, in Athens and Piraeus, 1938

Industry	Daily wages (in drachmas ¹⁾ in—		Industry	Daily wages (in drachmas ¹⁾ in—	
	Athens	Piraeus		Athens	Piraeus
Quarries.....	85-135	67-134	Metalware—Continued.		
Foodstuffs:			Carriage and wagon shops....	55-167	-----
Bakeries.....	55-125	65- 94	Electric lamps.....	55-115	55- 88
Flour mills.....	67-136	67-136	Machine shops.....	55-215	55-120
Alimentary paste.....	71-142	70-120	Electric-machine shops.....	55-132	-----
Confectioneries.....	55-125	55- 75	Woodworking:		
Dairies.....	55-120	-----	Woodworking and sawmills....	55-208	55- 92
Olive-oil mills.....	-----	55-116	Furniture.....	55-176	55-120
Breweries and ice making.....	55-256	60-115	Boxes.....	55- 85	-----
Aerated water.....	55- 80	55- 80	Barrels.....	72-100	90-100
Raisin preparing.....	-----	55-134	Brushes.....	60-100	55- 70
Chemicals:			Leather:		
Sulphur-oil plants.....	55-138	55-138	Boots and shoes.....	55-133	55-150
Pharmaceutical products.....	55-108	60-115	Tanneries.....	55-100	55-100
Dyestuffs.....	55-154	55-120	Leather goods.....	58-124	58-124
Perfumery.....	55- 97	-----	Gloves.....	55-261	-----
Plastics.....	55-173	-----	Textiles:		
Rubber.....	55-200	-----	Silk spinning.....	55- 92	-----
Tanning materials.....	55-154	-----	Silk weaving.....	55-140	-----
Fertilizers.....	-----	55-141	Wool spinning.....	55-575	-----
Building materials:			Wool weaving.....	55-135	-----
Marble working.....	55-140	-----	Cotton ginning.....	-----	60-154
Brick making.....	55-120	55-130	Cotton spinning.....	55-200	55-140
Cement.....	55-150	55-150	Cotton weaving.....	55-100	55-104
Building workers.....	55-120	55-120	Quilt and mattress making....	55-100	55-100
Tile making.....	55-177	55- 80	Knit goods:		
Electric-power plants ²	55-105	55-105	Hosiery.....	55-445	55-155
Metalware:			Flannel.....	55-308	55-308
Crude-metal workshops.....	55-100	-----	Cleaning and dyeing shops.....	55-100	55-100
Foundries.....	55-100	55-163	Clothing:		
Blacksmiths.....	55-110	55-120	Men's tailors.....	55-130	55-120
Copper shops.....	55-165	64-125	Women's tailors.....	55-231	55-231
Cooking appliances.....	55-120	55- 81	Men's hatters.....	55- 80	55- 80
Beds.....	-----	55-120	Women's hatters.....	55-115	55-115
Safes and scales.....	³ 64	-----	Shirt makers.....	55-150	55-150
Tinplate shops.....	55-110	55- 87	Paper:		
Nickel plating.....	55-100	55-125	Paper making.....	60-105	55-105
Pewter plating.....	55- 66	-----	Paper-box making.....	55-100	55-100
Gold plating.....	55-133	-----	Envelopes.....	55-100	55-100
Machine repairing.....	55-185	-----	Printing.....	55-130	55-105
Shipyards.....	-----	55-135	Bookbinding.....	55-120	55-100
			Tobacco.....	55-100	55-100

¹ Average exchange rate of drachma in 1938 = 0.896 cent.² Excludes power and traction company.³ Minimum; maximum not reported.

Wages in agriculture.—Before the present war most farming was done in small units by the proprietors and their families. Where ordinary agricultural workers were employed, the pay was from 55 to 100 drachmas daily.

Transportation.—Most classes of employees engaged on the State and other railroads of Greece and by the Electric Transport Co., Ltd., had their wages and salaries fixed on a monthly basis. The range in wages and salaries of transportation workers is given in table 4, covering conditions existing in 1938.

In transportation, overtime pay for the first 2 hours was at normal hourly rates; after 2 hours the rate was raised by 45 percent, except for track workmen whose rates were raised by 20 percent after the first 2 hours of overtime and by 45 percent after 4 hours of overtime work.

TABLE 4.—Monthly Wages and Salaries in the Transportation Industries of Greece, 1938

Occupation	Monthly wages or salaries (in drachmas ¹)	Occupation	Monthly wages or salaries (in drachmas ¹)
<i>State and other railways</i>		<i>State and other railways—Con.</i>	
Doorkeepers.....	1,680-2,830	Superintendents:	
Messengers.....	1,950-2,830	Class 1.....	3,995-7,898
Chief messengers.....	1,950-3,510	Class 2.....	4,485-8,872
Telephone operators.....	2,145-4,095	Collectors.....	1,755-5,411
Typists.....	2,535-4,875	Firemen.....	4,875-7,800
Clerks:		Engine drivers.....	5,850-10,725
Class 1.....	2,830-4,387		
Class 2.....	3,060-5,010	<i>Electric Transport Co., Ltd.</i>	
Class 3.....	3,354-5,714	Office personnel:	
Class 4.....	3,705-6,435	Clerks.....	2,973-4,613
Class 5.....	4,192-6,712	Chiefs of department.....	5,330-11,890
Class 6.....	4,680-8,190	Tramway traffic personnel:	
Engineers:		Conductors (temporary).....	⁴ 2,050
Class 1.....	6,825-11,602	Conductors (permanent).....	⁴ 2,460-3,690
Class 2.....	7,410-13,260	Drivers (temporary).....	⁴ 2,204
Class 3.....	8,190-15,015	Drivers (permanent).....	⁴ 2,614-3,844
Class 4.....	9,165-16,965	Inspectors.....	3,280-4,920
Chief engineers.....	² 13,650	Chief inspectors.....	5,125-7,175
Assistant chief engineers.....	² 11,700	Workshop car-shed personnel:	
Workmen:		Technicians.....	1,743-3,280
Class 1.....	³ 55-70	Chief mechanics.....	2,973-4,613
Class 2.....	2,240-3,705	Watchmen.....	1,845-3,690
Class 3.....	2,390-4,240	Track personnel:	
Class 4.....	2,486-5,411	Cleaners, workmen.....	1,743-3,383
Technicians:		Foremen.....	2,870-3,998
Class 1.....	³ 66-86	Bus personnel:	
Class 2.....	³ 58-113	Drivers.....	⁴ 2,973-4,203
Class 3.....	³ 101-128	Conductors.....	⁴ 2,460-3,690
Class 4.....	5,655-8,385	Conductors, when promoted.....	3,588-5,228
Stationmasters:		Inspectors.....	3,998-6,048
Class 1.....	2,632-4,582		
Class 2.....	2,876-5,313		
Class 3.....	3,169-6,094		
Class 4.....	3,510-6,922		

¹ Average exchange rate of drachma in 1938=0.896 cent.² Minimum; maximum not reported.³ Daily rate of pay.⁴ Minimum; maximum not reported. In addition, 10.25 drachmas per day was paid for work on the vehicle.⁵ In addition, 10.25 drachmas per day was paid for work on the vehicle.

Salaried workers.—The range in the monthly rate of pay for salaried employees in Athens and Piraeus is shown in table 5 as of 1938.

TABLE 5.—Monthly Pay of Salaried Employees in Athens and Piraeus, 1938

Occupation	Monthly salaries (in drachmas ¹) in—		Occupation	Monthly salaries (in drachmas ¹) in—	
	Athens	Piraeus		Athens	Piraeus
Managers.....	5,500-24,000	7,852-20,000	Correspondents.....	3,000-3,200	1,600-5,500
Chiefs of departments.....	3,000-8,500	5,375-7,000	Office employees.....	2,500-6,500	1,900-3,800
Technical directors.....	² 5,000		Chauffeurs.....	3,000-5,000	3,000-5,000
Engineers.....		5,000-14,000	Truck drivers.....	² 3,750	1,200-2,340
Designers.....	² 9,600	4,000-5,200	Storekeepers.....	2,650-4,000	948-3,500
Assistant designers.....	2,200-2,550		Superintendents.....	3,000-4,250	2,000-6,000
Chemists.....	2,500-4,500	2,500-12,000	Distributors.....	1,500-1,800	1,500-1,800
Millers.....		² 15,500	Barmen.....	2,580-4,500	2,580-4,500
Cashiers.....	2,600-8,000	2,000-7,000	Weighers.....	3,000-3,500	3,000-3,500
Chief accountants.....	3,500-8,500	4,000-12,000	Assistants in general.....	1,600-1,800	1,600-1,800
Accountants, A-1 class.....	1,500-6,500	2,500-5,000	Watchmen.....	1,740-3,460	1,200-3,250
Accountants, B-1 class.....	1,500-2,700	1,900-2,750	Doorkeepers.....	1,950-2,250	1,834-3,300
Controllers.....		² 6,000	Messengers.....	1,730-2,400	800-2,250
Collectors.....	1,800-5,000	2,200-3,500	Cooks.....	2,910-4,000	1,200-2,350
Salesmen.....	2,910-3,200	1,500-3,500			

¹ Average exchange rate of drachma in 1938=0.896 cent.² Minimum; maximum not reported.

Factors affecting wages.—Greece maintained no system of family allowances and did not have a law providing for vacations with pay for workers generally. However, provisions of this kind were made a part of the benefits accruing to employees under the terms of certain collective agreements. For example, a collective agreement signed on June 29, 1937, covering bank clerks, included a scale of salaries based on length of service for the various classes of employees and rates of family allowances as well. A law of December 23, 1936, standardizing the conditions of employment for hotel employees, prescribed an annual vacation with pay after 1 year of service amounting to 15 days for salaried employees and 1 week for wage-earning and subordinate workers.

HOURS OF LABOR

Before the present war, the basic 8-hour day and 6-day week were standard in industry. Greece had been in process of applying the 8-hour-day law to industries since shortly after the first World War. The textile industry was the last major industry to which the 8-hour limitation was applied in 1937. In that year a trend toward an even shorter workday appeared, with the introduction of a basic 7-hour day for salaried employees of joint-stock companies and banks (act of March 15, 1937).

Greece was among the first countries to pass an act, on June 24, 1920, providing for the ratification of the Convention adopted by the Washington International Labor Conference the previous autumn, concerning the limitation of basic hours in industrial enterprises to 8 per day and 48 per week. In the years following, numerous decrees were adopted applying the maximum-hours provisions to individual industries. At the same time the decrees permitted necessary adjustments to allow for peculiar circumstances and to take care of peak production periods, etc.

On June 27, 1932, a decree was promulgated consolidating and supplementing the provisions of law relating to the 8-hour day. The enterprises subject to coverage were enumerated in 13 broad classes: (1) Mining; (2) iron and steel; (3) lime, brick works, etc.; (4) dyeing and bleaching; (5) roller mills [grain] with a daily output of more than 10 tons, bakeries; (6) miscellaneous products; (7) leather, except boots and shoes; (8) paper products; (9) mattress factories, laundries, etc.; (10) brush and broom factories; (11) electric power; (12) motor transportation; and (13) tobacco warehouses and factories.

Extension of maximum hours was permissible for various reasons. For example, to allow for a half day off on Saturdays, more than 8 hours could be worked on other days. In case of emergency, permits might be issued to make up hours lost. In Athens and Piraeus the chief labor inspectors were empowered to grant such permits; elsewhere they were to be granted by the labor inspector or, in default of such an official, by the competent police authority.

Owners and managers were obliged to keep registers showing the names of employees and the hours worked, the permits granted for overtime work, and the extra remuneration paid for overtime.

On June 3, 1935, the 1932 legislation on hours was amended and consolidated to alter the periods allowed employees for midday meals to 2 hours in winter and 3 hours in summer.

OVERTIME HOURS AND RATES OF PAY

Overtime work was ordinarily compensated for at time and one-quarter the normal hourly rate of pay, prior to the present war. For work done on holidays the rate was time and one-half or double time. Under certain early legislation (March 5, 1930) governing overtime in commercial establishments, it was provided that the prefect would fix the overtime remuneration. However, the time and one-quarter rate was specified by decree as early as December 17, 1924, for workers in tobacco factories. When the consolidated hours decree was issued in 1932 it also established overtime pay at time and one-quarter.

Probably because of unemployment, higher overtime rates of pay were fixed in 1937 and labor inspectors were instructed to limit overtime as strictly as possible. When the hours of employees of joint-stock companies were reduced from 8 to 7 daily (act of March 15), the premium pay for overtime was placed at 30 percent and the amount of permissible overtime was limited. In tanneries, gut works, and similar establishments double time was the overtime rate (decree of September 3) for 2 hours a day in 30 periods a year.

WAGES AND HOURS DURING ENEMY OCCUPATION

Greece participated in the war for only 6 months, from October 1940 to April 1941, and data are lacking on wages and hours of civilians during that period. With the occupation of the country by Axis forces, internal conditions deteriorated rapidly. The enemy requisitioned everything of value—food, clothing, luxury goods, and art objects. What the occupation forces could not utilize themselves, they sold on the black market.

Inflation and mass starvation resulted and even though wage increases were made, the gap between wages and prices widened. Between September 1940 and May 1942, the official price of an egg rose from 2 to 55 drachmas; on the black market the price of an egg was 200 drachmas on the latter date. Thus, officially, prices of some goods mounted to 27 times, and on the black market to 100 times, the normal rate.

The first general wage and salary increase occurred in November 1941, when Government employees received their monthly pay every 20 days and workers paid by the day received a 50-percent increase. Subsequent additions to pay did not improve the situation and in January 1942 food was promised to workers in addition to wages. Varying degrees of starvation were reported from different areas, depending upon the success of mass-feeding efforts by different agencies.

The subsequent record of the measures taken by the puppet government in Athens to keep wages in balance with prices is incomplete, but on October 15, 1942, a wage increase was ordered by the Ministry of Labor (retroactive to September 30). Fifty percent was to be added to wages and cost-of-living allowances for a broad range of private industrial, commercial, professional, and domestic employees, regardless of sex. The base for calculating the increases was the July 1942 wage level. All wage increases granted voluntarily subsequent to July 16, 1942, were to be considered a part of the required increase.

Increases that had been authorized by arbitration award were exempt. By decree of January 1943 employers were ordered to furnish meals to their employees as a part of wages.

Early in 1943, it was stated that a middle-class family would require 100,000 drachmas a month per person to buy food that would normally cost 3,000 drachmas. Therefore, payment of wages in kind became general for wage earners and barter increased in importance.

No data are available showing the hours being worked by Greek labor but it is certain that workers are being forced to carry on to the limit of their endurance, which has been impaired by lack of food.

Labor Organizations

RIGHTS OF ORGANIZATION AND DIRECT ACTION

Periodic changes in the limitations placed on the right of labor to organize and to strike reflect the political tensions in Greece during the last few decades.

Before and after the first World War, legislation was enacted (June 21/July 4, 1914; March 11, and March 21/April 3, 1920) whereby the right of labor to organize was accepted, the provisions of the penal code declaring strikes to be criminal offenses were repealed, and the administration of unions was made subject to certain checks. Although these laws gave recognition to organized labor, the Government retained its powers to supervise and dissolve labor organizations.

In the closing months of the Monarchy under King George II (1923), before the Republic was established by plebiscite (April 13, 1924), all trade-unions or trade-union federations recognized under previously existing legislation were deemed to be nonexistent by a decree issued on August 20, 1923. Three months later, the dissolution order was repealed and trade-unions regained their legal existence.

Under the Republic, rights of trade-union organizations were the subject of action in 1927 when the constitution was adopted (June 3). It stated that Greek citizens had the right of peaceful assembly and that the police would not be entitled to attend their meetings other than public meetings. Citizens were guaranteed the right to form associations, without securing the approval of the State, as long as they were formed in accordance with the laws. No association could be dissolved for contravention of a law, except by court order.

During the life of the Republic considerable legislative emphasis was placed on the control of the organizational activities of civil servants. For example, on October 11, 1926, there was an official declaration that public employees who incited public officials or employees to strike or who abetted such action would be dismissed. By act of March 12, 1928, any public servant who failed to perform his duties owing to a strike was deemed to have resigned and was liable to detention.

Although the right of civil servants to organize was recognized by law of March 6, 1931, the same statute strictly prohibited strikes, including stay-in strikes, and established penalties for participation in stoppages. The strike ban was extended to the domestic staff of Government departments, irrespective of grade or class, under a law of May 7, 1932. In April 1935 civil servants were forbidden to organize. Shortly afterwards the Republic fell.

When Prime Minister Metaxas assumed control of the country, the position of trade-unions was altered greatly and they were brought under immediate Government direction and control.

By act of August 2, 1937, officials and other State employees were forbidden to form associations or to become members of any existing association. If any official or employee already maintained such membership, he was required to notify his superior officer and apply for a permit within 1 month of the effective date of the legislation.

Numerous changes in the legal status of trade-unions were made by the terms of the decree dated October 21, 1938. The main purpose was to establish a single union organization. The National General Confederation of Labor was named the only representative trade-union in Greece. Unions which did not affiliate were not recognized. In this way membership was encouraged in order to form a convenient unit for direction by the Government. From a union membership of 272,100 on January 1, 1938, the total rose to 356,240 a year later, and to 780,000 on January 1, 1940.

After the Axis forces occupied the country, the German command decreed (on April 28, 1942) that workers employed for the direct or indirect purposes of the occupation forces in Greece were forbidden to strike. A strike is defined as any interruption of the service or terms of contract or any willful expression which disturbs the regular progress of work, if more than three persons participate. The penalties are severe and the leaders are subject to a death sentence.

Although pronouncements of the Government-in-exile headed by King George II affect only Greek workers outside Greece, such as seamen, the government, by law of October 31, 1942, disavowed the legislation on trade-unions enacted under Prime Minister Metaxas. The law declares that in future trade-unions of all kinds and federations of trade-unions are to be subject to the laws of 1914 and 1920, as they were in operation before 1938.

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS

Employers and employees were encouraged to fix conditions of employment by collective agreements under the terms of the 1914 legislation on trade-unions. However, the first law dealing specifically with the negotiation of collective agreements was enacted on November 16, 1935, after the people voted to return to the Monarchy. Collective agreements entered into by particular employers and employees could be made a common rule, that is, binding on employers and employees throughout a district, an industry, or the entire country.

The principle of the common rule was applied by legislation of August 26, 1936, when two collective agreements—one covering salaried workers and the other wage earners—were given the force of law. Upon expiration, the effectiveness of these agreements was extended by act of August 25, 1938. The agreements for salaried workers and wage earners, respectively, were to supersede every other collective agreement when its particular term expired. Thus the common rule was applied, but apparently labor lost its right to negotiate freely as to changes in the terms of collective agreements.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

One of the early acts of the restored Monarchy was the passage of a law on November 16, 1935, for the settlement of collective labor disputes, in general, respecting conditions of employment. Previously, such machinery was limited to the settlement of disputes affecting salaried workers only (by law of April 21, 1926). Administration of the 1935 legislation was placed under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Labor. The law itself became effective by decree of June 18, 1936.

Settlement was made compulsory in a dispute involving two or more employers or an employers' association or a single employer with more than 10 employees in his service on the one hand and an association of employees or a group of employees including more than 10 persons on the other hand. If conciliation failed or the dispute was referred directly for settlement by arbitration, any attempt to settle the difference by recourse to a strike or lock-out was prohibited.

As soon as a dispute arose the Labor Directorate could proceed to hold an inquiry into the causes on the request of either party, with a view to securing a voluntary settlement. If conciliation succeeded, a report containing the terms of agreement was signed by the two parties and the Government representative and filed with the clerk of the court having jurisdiction. A copy was sent to the Labor Directorate of the Ministry of Labor and the settlement took effect at once.

If conciliation failed and more than 25 employees were involved, the dispute was referred for arbitration. An official of the Labor Directorate was obliged to draw up a report on the points at issue and to submit it to the chairman of the court of first instance in the appropriate district, who was required to establish an arbitral body at once. Such a board consisted of five members. Employers, employees, and the public were given representation on arbitration boards.

The arbitration board was obliged to meet within 3 days, reckoned from the submission of the report on the collective dispute. No particular form of procedure was prescribed. After full consideration, the board made an award in the case by majority vote. If a tie resulted, the chairman was entitled to a casting vote. It was within the power of the board to declare by an absolute majority that a dispute was not one of general interest and should therefore be settled by direct negotiation. However, if a case was acted upon by the board, the award was binding on the parties concerned, under penalty. The enforcement order was required to be made by the Minister of Labor within 15 days of the date of promulgation by the board.

Appeals were permitted in cases involving enterprises of a public character where more than 200 persons were employed, and in exceptional circumstances, for example, when a dispute constituted a danger to public order. Under these conditions provision was made for referral of the differences to permanent superior arbitration boards which were to be formed in Athens, Piraeus, Salonika, and Patras, consisting of representative employee, employer, and public members.

Cooperative Movement

The cooperative movement in Greece—largely agricultural—dates only from 1914 when the first legal authorization for cooperative associations was passed. With Government encouragement, the movement grew rapidly. Cooperative settlement associations were favored as a means of distributing land to the people during the agrarian reforms. General-purpose cooperatives helped to solve the problems of persons who fled into Greece from Turkey and southern Russia after the first World War, as well as those involved in the population exchanges with Bulgaria and Turkey—in all, some 2,000,000 persons. The movement continued to grow throughout the span of the Republic.

In Greece, the movement has been predominantly rural, with the rural credit associations forming by far the largest single group. Of 9,611 associations in 1936, 6,270 were rural and 3,341 urban. Credit associations numbered 4,476 (4,401 rural), followed by 1,684 workers' productive and labor associations (all urban).

By the end of 1938, the membership of cooperative associations was about 300,000. Taking into account the families of members, about one-fifth of the population was served by the movement. Approximately 65 percent of the agricultural population were members of or served by the cooperatives. The movement was strongest in the Peloponnesus and Macedonia; next in importance were Thessaly and the Aegean Islands.

Urban associations varied more in type than the rural organizations. They included workers' productives, and the housing, insurance, and fishery associations for which there were no counterparts in rural areas. The credit associations constituted over two-thirds of the farmers' cooperatives. About one-third of these associations, it is reported, carried on side-line activities such as the purchase of farm and household supplies, processing and sale of farm products, and warehousing.

Agricultural cooperatives and the Government.—The Government has utilized the cooperatives in connection with handling credit for farmers since 1914. Beginning in 1929, with the establishment of the Agricultural Bank, the agricultural cooperatives performed services for the bank which brought them under a considerable measure of State intervention and control. The Minister of Agriculture had general supervision over the associations, and they were required to submit their constitutions to him for approval.

In 1930, the cooperative law was amended to prevent political activities on the part of members of cooperatives. Any candidate for office in either House of Parliament or for mayor was barred from membership on a cooperative committee or board for 3 years thereafter.

Further amendments to the agricultural cooperative law in 1931 prevented any warehousing or stocking of goods by the associations; limited membership in an association to residents or property holders in the area of operation; required that all reserve funds should be deposited with the Agricultural Bank; and gave the bank's auditors the right to attend all cooperative meetings and the power to act as public prosecutors under criminal law in certain cases.

These legislative changes coupled with the effects of the economic depression in the early 1930's brought the agricultural cooperative movement to a standstill, and its survival was reported as due only to "the faith of its leaders." However, by 1936, the latest year for which information is available, the movement was expanding. Under the dictatorship established in August 1936, the associations were being utilized by the State in handling different crops. In 1939, a law was passed placing all cooperatives under the supervision of a new office—the Under-Secretariat of Cooperative Societies, which was responsible to Prime Minister Metaxas.

Social Insurance

SICKNESS, MATERNITY, ACCIDENT, INVALIDITY, OLD AGE, AND DEATH

Commercial and industrial workers.—A compulsory insurance system covering sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death was instituted by a law of September 24, 1934, as amended, for all employees in the urban areas designated as insurance centers, with the exception of members of existing insurance funds, and persons employed in agriculture, forestry, and stock raising unless they were employed in or within the immediate vicinity of the cities of Athens, Piraeus, Salonika, or Patras. The system, which is administered by the Social Insurance Institution in Athens, was not put in effect until 1938, but by 1940 the scheme was in operation in all the urban centers. The law was apparently not abrogated after the country was occupied by the Germans and the puppet government formed.

The system is financed by contributions from insured persons and employers, the State merely granting tax exemption to the Institution. The joint contribution was fixed at 7.7 percent of the basic wage—4.1 percent for sickness insurance and 3.6 percent for pension insurance. The insured person pays 40 percent of the joint contribution and the employer (because industrial accidents are covered by the scheme), 60 percent. Insured persons are grouped in wage classes for the assessment of the contribution. A German newspaper (*Donauzeitung*, December 8, 1942) stated that the new contribution for social insurance was fixed at 53.10 drachmas per 1,000 drachmas of wage or salary for sickness and 31.70 drachmas for pensions, the employer still paying 60 percent of the contribution.

Insured persons or pensioners and their dependents are entitled to medical, pharmaceutical, and hospital care. At the discretion of the Institution, and subject to payment by the patient of a share of the cost (not more than one-fourth), sanatorium treatment, various forms of physical treatment, artificial limbs, etc., may be granted to insured persons or pensioners. Medical benefit continues as long as needed. Medical supervision is provided during pregnancy, and confinements are attended by a midwife or doctor.

In case of incapacity for work because of sickness, an insured person receives a cash benefit equal to 40 percent of his basic daily wage, from the sixth day of incapacity, for a maximum of 180 days; the allowance is increased to 60 percent when the incapacity is due to industrial accident or disease. Insured women receive, during the 6 weeks before and the 6 weeks after childbirth, an allowance equal to one-third of their daily basic wage.

Invalidity and old-age pensions consist of a basic sum of 3,000 drachmas a year, plus increments proportional to the number and rate of the contributions paid. Old-age pensions are payable at age 65 years for men and 60 for women. Payment of pensions had not begun, however, in 1939.

On the death of an insured person or pensioner, his family receives a funeral benefit of 1,250 drachmas. The widow or invalid widower of an insured person or pensioner receives 40 percent of the pension to which the deceased was or would have been entitled as an invalid, and the pension for each dependent child is 20 percent of the deceased person's pension. The total of the survivors' pensions may not exceed the pension to which the deceased person was entitled.

The right to medical, sickness, and maternity cash benefits, and funeral benefit is dependent upon the payment by the insured person of contributions for 50 days during the 12 months preceding the claim; and the right to pension is dependent upon the payment of contributions for 750 days, of which at least 300 must have been within the 4 years preceding the claim.

Seamen.—There are three main branches of social insurance for seamen—pensions, unemployment and sickness relief, and insurance against tuberculosis. All are administered by the Seamen's Invalidity Fund, the headquarters of which was moved to London after the conquest of Greece by the Axis. Seamen who were outside their native country when the occupation took place form the only group of workers over which the Greek Government-in-exile has direct control. In addition to the insurance legislation mentioned, which is described in the present article, a law was passed in 1939 granting war-risk insurance to seamen.

The Seamen's Invalidity Fund is maintained by joint and equal contributions of seamen and shipowners, and from various other sources—a 4-percent tax on passenger fares and freights, stamp duties, fines, etc. The contributions made by seamen and shipowners vary according to the employee's rating. Contributions are varied periodically according to the value of the currency and the experience of the Fund.

In general, seamen who are permanently incapacitated for every occupation and who have served for 120 months are entitled to pensions. No qualifying period is required if the incapacity results from accident arising out of employment, and in such cases a proportional pension is paid if the incapacity is partial.

For old age the pension is granted at age 55 years after 300 months of service. The retirement age is lowered by 1 year (maximum 5 years) for every additional 12 months of service; and the qualifying period of service is reduced by 12 months (maximum 180 months) for every year the claimant exceeds age 55 years.

Survivors' pensions are payable to the widow, children, or other dependents of deceased pensioners or seamen who served 120 months. For the widow the pension equals 55 percent of the pension to which the deceased was or would have been entitled and for a child, 15 percent. The total of the survivors' pensions may not exceed the amount to which the deceased would have been entitled.

The amount of invalidity and old-age pensions is proportional to the total amount of the joint contributions and is approximately equal to one-fifth of the contributions paid, together with a small fixed pension.

UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION AND RELIEF FOR SEAMEN

Greece has not maintained regular systems either for unemployment compensation or relief. However, relief of an announced kind was undertaken by the puppet government in November 1942 when aid was given through professional chambers to artisans and professional persons who suffered from the depression.

In contrast, a fund for the relief of unemployment and sickness among seamen was provided for, by decree of November 1926, in connection with the Seamen's Invalidity Fund. The law, as amended, provides for unemployment and sickness relief for Greek registered seamen and their families.

Contributions for these payments consist of one-tenth of the joint contributions by seamen and shipowners to the Seamen's Invalidity Fund and one-quarter of the tax on passenger fares and freights collected by the latter fund.

Cash or loans are granted to indigent unemployed seamen for their maintenance or for meeting their own or their families' hospital expenses. Medical attendance may be provided, as well as traveling expenses of seamen to join a ship, grants for retraining, and any other measures for the relief of seamen and their families.

INSURANCE AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

Commercial and industrial employees.—By act of November 19, 1935, insurance against tuberculosis was provided for all employees subject to the invalidity, old-age and death insurance, and sickness systems, and for persons working independently who were insured against these risks if the insuring organization applied for inclusion. The purpose of the Tuberculosis Insurance Organization (created by the act and under the supervision of the Ministry of Labor) was to insure the risk of low-paid workers and to take preventive measures against the disease.

The insured person's contribution might not exceed 1 percent of pay, to be matched by the employer. An initial contribution was required from the public or private bodies operating in the tuberculosis field in an amount not to exceed expenditures in the preceding 3 years. For independent workers the contribution was not to exceed one-fourth of the contribution for invalidity, old-age, and death insurance.

The amount of the contributions was to be established by decree and regulations were to fix the benefits and other details of operation.

Seamen.—Special relief for seamen incapacitated from tuberculosis, adenopathy, and organic heart disease was prescribed by law of October 31, 1936. A special account was opened in the Seamen's Unemployment and Sickness Fund, and the system is administered by the Seamen's Home in Piraeus. Benefits were made payable to registered seamen who had fulfilled their military duty, who held diplomas or special certificates of competency, or who after registration had served 2 years on Greek merchant ships (including 1 year in the 3 years preceding disablement).

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Under the basic workmen's compensation law of December 31, 1914, as amended, Greek employers are liable for payment of compensation for injuries to their employees lasting over 4 days. Wage-earning or salaried employees who are injured in the course of their employment are covered, if employed in building and other technical trades, manufacturing, and industrial establishments; where mechanical tools are used; in water transport, loading, unloading, and warehousing; in mines and quarries, not covered in previous legislation; and where explosive or poisonous substances are manufactured or utilized or in which power-driven machinery is used. Accidents to railway employees may be compensated for under the pension systems of the railroads, if the compensation is at least equal to that payable under the workmen's compensation law.

For total and permanent disablement the compensation payable is a sum equal to 6 years' wages or salary but not less than 55,000 drachmas. If the total 6 years' income is over 110,000 drachmas, the compensation is 110,000 drachmas plus one-quarter of the excess.

When permanent partial disablement results from injury, the compensation is 6 times the amount by which the annual income of the injured person is reduced, but not less than 16,500 drachmas. If 6 times the reduction in annual income exceeds 55,000 drachmas, the compensation is 55,000 drachmas plus one-fourth of the excess.

If death results from injury the payment is 5 years' wages or salary but not less than 66,000 drachmas. In case the total calculated by this formula exceeds 110,000 drachmas, the payment is 110,000 drachmas plus one-fourth of the excess. The entire amount is payable to the husband or wife of the victim if there are no other relatives; otherwise the relatives in the descending or ascending line receive part of the compensation.

Government Measures for Improvement of Living Standards in El Salvador¹

A GREAT deal of progress toward raising the standard of living and increasing the productivity of the workers in El Salvador has been made recently. Among the measures adopted have been the provision of credit through rural credit cooperatives, a central cooperative bank, and the establishment of a Government company the purpose of which is to assure the small coffee producer an adequate return on his product. Although the Government has had a housing and land-distribution program since 1932, it was hampered by lack of sufficient funds. The latest measure adopted was the creation of a Social Development Corporation which will be a combination public-conservation, economic-development, banking, and marketing agency. It is expected that this body will give new impetus to the housing and land program and will centralize the activities for improving the living standards.

As a result of the war, El Salvador is, for the first time since 1926, selling abroad more than twice as much as it is able to buy. There is, therefore, considerable private money which is idle and available, and the position of the principal banking institutions, which did not even exist in 1926, is very strong.

Efforts to raise the standard of living and increase the productivity of the peon or "campesino" have hitherto been directed primarily to the small landholder and only secondarily to the unpropertied day laborer. Both types of campesinos live a hand-to-mouth existence. Those who actually own land are few in number, but many cultivate small properties without title, growing corn and beans for their own needs and spending about one-third to one-half of the year as migratory farm laborers. In the Salvadoran agricultural community, crops of coffee, sugar, and cotton are all harvested more or less simultaneously in the period November through February, and the fact that considerable additional labor is needed during this period complicates the problem.

The solution adopted by the interested Government institutions has been to take the man who is actually producing or is capable of producing, assist him to acquire or to hold on to his own land, finance him when necessary at fair rates of interest, and assure him a stable market and a fair price for his product. Apart from the general aim of increased national productivity, it is desired to make the small producer more self-sufficient and, particularly, financially independent.

Regarding the ordinary day laborer, the Government's immediate problem is to improve his living conditions by supplying at least the minimum sanitary housing conditions, public-health facilities, medical care, and education. It has been realized, however, that even those who are slightly better off, and may be classed as actual or potential producers, have faced almost insurmountable financial barriers.

¹ Report of H. Gardner Ainsworth, United States vice consul at San Salvador.

Social-Welfare Activities of Mortgage Bank

Notable among the banking institutions of El Salvador is the Mortgage Bank, efficient, progressive, and social-minded. Its most recent contribution to the Salvadoran economic structure has been the creation of a series of independent rural credit cooperatives in various regions of the Republic. These cooperatives are being federated on a national scale, under an autonomous Central Credit Cooperative.

In order to assist the small coffee growers, the Salvador Coffee Co., Inc., was formed. It works with the rural credit cooperatives to assure a fair price to the growers. These small producers (some 10,000 in number), who form over 80 percent of all coffee producers in El Salvador, raise less than 20 percent of the total output. As they were dependent upon the large growers for financing, on terms set by the latter, they were sinking more and more deeply into debt. Under the auspices of the Mortgage Bank and the Salvador Coffee Co., the small coffee growers now sell to the cooperatives. The same procedure is being extended to other crops and to small manufactures of various articles.

Many of the bank's recent projects have been undertaken not only because funds have been available to some extent from the Government, but also because no other institution has existed in the Republic capable of undertaking the necessary operations. The following examples of current projects of the bank illustrate the kind of operations which may be expected to be undertaken by the Social Development Corporation in the near future.

The bank has developed a small industry—making cotton sacks for sugar—by coordinating the efforts of several hand industries, placing orders for the bags, and financing the manufacture by extending credit against the finished products, which are stored in the bank's warehouses until harvest of the sugar crop. The same procedure is followed with respect to the manufacture of baskets for coffee pickers and henequen bags for shipping coffee, both important domestic industries.

The production of gray sheeting on hand looms is also given assistance.

At the suggestion of the rural credit cooperatives, the bank now buys quinine in bulk, has it processed in pill form in cooperation with Government health authorities, and distributes it at cost through the cooperatives in malarial districts of the Republic.

In order to stimulate a domestic art-handicraft industry in small articles of wood, iron, leather, clay, and cotton, the bank has placed orders and opened a merchandising display room. It is expected that this activity will have expanded considerably by the time the tourist trade begins again.

Considerable aid has been given to the hat industry by the purchase of hand-made hats at an established minimum price, thus assuring a market to the numerous sweated handicrafters.

Kerosene is scarce, but necessary for lighting purposes in rural areas. In order to prevent speculation in this commodity, the bank has been selling it through the credit cooperatives at the ceiling set by the price-control authorities.

Government Housing and Land-Distribution Program

The Government of El Salvador enacted legislation in 1926 authorizing the construction of inexpensive houses and the purchase of suitable lands for distribution to unpropertied farm labor, but poor financial conditions during the early depression years delayed the undertaking of any actual steps in this direction. The present Government assumed administration in 1931, and one of its earliest acts was the passage of a new law on October 28, 1932, establishing a special commission, the National Board of Social Defense (*Junta de Defensa Social*), primarily to undertake land distribution and low-cost housing projects. Its activities originally were limited to a maximum of \$1,500,000, to be obtained through the sale of 8-percent bonds and repaid through certain taxes, principally on beer and cigarettes. In the 10 years of the Commission's existence, \$1,724,415 was actually spent on the acquisition of properties.

During this period fewer than 300 houses were constructed (principally in urban areas), and some 53,800 manzanas (91,473 acres) of land were purchased by the Government and distributed to landless peons on a long-term credit plan. Thirty-two large rural properties were subdivided into 5,915 lots, of which 4,854 were actually occupied on December 31, 1942. In addition, 2,441 solares (urban lots for housing development) were made available. During the same period, however, the urban population of El Salvador increased by about 80,000 persons (roughly 13 percent), and although statistical evidence is not available, it is estimated that fewer small holdings of land were created by the Commission than were absorbed by large landowners in the formation of extensive haciendas (for raising cattle, cotton, sugar, and grains), and fincas (coffee plantations).

About 54 percent of the Commission's income from taxes on beer, sugar, cigarettes, and wines, during the years 1933-42, went into the purchase of properties and the construction of houses. In addition, 12 percent was lent to the Government in connection with the construction of a large bridge over the Lempa River in 1942. A balance of \$360,000 was very recently turned over by the Government to the new Social Development Corporation.

Most of the houses constructed were acquired by people in the artisan class rather than those in the lowest economic class.

The fact that comparatively little was accomplished by the Commission during its 10 years of existence is attributed to (1) poor management, which did not always choose the most suitable recipient for the land it distributed, and (2) lack of funds and organization to extend short-term credit to the new farmers. It appeared that the Government's responsibility ended when the farmer obtained his parcel of land, and consequently those farmers who did not fail for lack of financial assistance have contributed little to national production.

Social Development Corporation: Powers and Program

The Social Development Corporation was authorized by decrees Nos. 115 and 116 of December 22, 1942. This new body, known as "Mejoramiento Social, S. A.," supersedes the National Board of Social Defense (established in 1932) but is given greater resources and broader powers. It is chartered for 75 years, as a private corporation.

The Social Development Corporation is provided with an original capital of 800,000 colones (\$320,000). This is in the form of stock, of which two-fifths is to be subscribed by the Mortgage Bank of El Salvador, two-fifths by the rural credit cooperatives, and one-fifth by private stockholders (temporarily this amount will be advanced by the Mortgage Bank). The Corporation will also receive the funds and property of the National Board of Social Defense, which is to be liquidated.

The Corporation is to be controlled through the stock ownership by the Mortgage Bank of El Salvador and the Central Credit Cooperative of the rural cooperatives. In credit practice, however, administration will rest largely with the Mortgage Bank, at least until such time as the cooperative credit system has matured and is self-controlled, and the administration will reflect considerable Government influence. The Government has no representation in the stockholders' general assembly, but its single member on the board of directors, who is appointed by the Ministry of Finance, will act as president of the board of directors.

The general assembly of stockholders' representatives is to consist of the president and seven members of the board of directors of the Mortgage Bank, eight members from the board of directors of the Central Credit Cooperative, and four representatives elected by the private shareholders. The board of directors of the corporation is to consist of a president, a vice president and four directors, one director each being chosen by the Ministry of Finance, the Mortgage Bank, the Central Credit Cooperative, and the private shareholders.

The Social Development Corporation is given the following powers and objectives: To acquire all classes of property; to construct and to distribute adequate houses among persons of modest economic position; to transfer parcels of land by means of cash payment, lease, or contracted loan to persons in the small-income bracket; to establish and administer pawn shops for the purpose of making small loans on good security; to take steps for the efficient conservation and exploitation of the lands owned by or entrusted to it, including the protection of water sites, water places, the construction of canals for transportation, reforestation, and other services for the betterment of the populace; to issue bonds and other obligations, and to collect fees and commissions from its operations or the services it performs; and to enter into all classes of operations, civil or commercial, compatible with its objectives and nature.

The probable activities of the Corporation in the near future will be limited by its small initial capital and by the amount which it can obtain from the Mortgage Bank, or other similar banking institutions, for ventures which should be financially sound. It is expected to take over certain activities heretofore carried on by the Mortgage Bank.

One possible activity, already being studied, is the colonization of neglected areas. Recently officials of the Mortgage Bank visited the western coastal plain, with a view to ascertaining its possibilities for colonization. The area is hot and low but fertile and thinly populated. As El Salvador has the largest population per square mile of all the Central American countries, and most of its arable land is already under cultivation, the opening of uncultivated areas will offer a significant means of increasing productivity and raising living standards. Coupled with the colonization scheme is consideration of the linking of the lagoons and waterways into a barge-canal system which would provide an inexpensive outlet for the produce of the area.

Wartime Policies

Regulations For Operation of Coal Mines Under Government Control

ON MAY 19, 1943, the Secretary of the Interior issued further regulations for the Government operation of coal mines.¹

Organization for operation.—Subject to the supervision of the Solid Fuels Administrator or Deputy Administrator, the mines are to be operated under regional managers.

Managers of the field offices of the Bituminous Coal Division, or such other persons as the Administrator may appoint, are designated as the regional bituminous-coal managers. For the anthracite region, the chief of the Mineral Production Security Division in the Bureau of Mines, or a person selected by the Administrator, is to serve as regional anthracite coal manager. A regional advisory council, consisting of the chairman and the labor representatives of the bituminous-coal district board, is to assist each regional manager.

Under ordinary circumstances, operation of the mines of a mining company is to be entrusted to an officer of the company, who shall have the title of operating manager for the United States; if the company does not cooperate, the Administrator may designate some person other than an officer or employee of the company. For a company in receivership or trusteeship, the receiver or trustee will ordinarily be designated as operating manager.

Operation of the mines.—The operating manager of each mine is required to submit to the regional manager property and financial records. The property records shall consist of statements defining and enumerating the properties coming under the jurisdiction of the Government. In the matter of financial accounts, the operating manager shall keep separate, or separable, the fiscal records of the company for the period of Government control.

Ordinary financial and commercial transactions are to be carried on, as far as possible, in accordance with the customary procedures and policies of the mining company. Major disbursements of an extraordinary nature can be made only with the approval of the regional manager.

Customary working conditions are to be maintained in all mines. Workers are to have the right of collective bargaining and the right to engage in any collective activities the purpose of which is to aid or to protect the employees, provided such activities do not interfere with the operation of the mine. All employment benefits and all arrangements governing the payment of wages are to be continued.

¹ Federal Register, Washington, D. C., May 21, 1943.

Miners are to be encouraged to work under present wage and working conditions, with the understanding that any eventual wage adjustment is to be made retroactive. The personnel of the mines is considered as serving the Government of the United States but do not come within the scope of the statutes relating to Federal employment.

Federal and State laws continue to apply to the mines under Government control. The companies are expected to meet all Federal, State and local levies in the customary manner, and they remain subject to suit as heretofore. However, no operating manager or regional manager is authorized to institute any legal proceedings on behalf of the United States, without specific direction of the Administrator.

Enforcement of regulations and orders.—In a case where the mining company does not cooperate, the regional manager is authorized to issue appropriate instructions for the operation of the mines of such company. Also, the regional manager may deny access to the premises to persons not contributing to the operation of the enterprise.

If an operating manager fails to comply with the regulations or orders of the regional manager, or of the Administrator, the regional manager is empowered to report to the Administrator the desirability of the removal of the operating manager.

Provision is made for use of armed forces if the need arises. Request for troops is to be made to the regional manager by the operating manager in charge of the affected mine. The regional manager shall send the request, together with his recommendation and that of the liaison officer designated by the Secretary of War for the district in question, to the Administrator. The latter decides whether the request for protection shall be submitted to the Secretary of War for proper action.

Termination of control.—Government control may be relinquished upon fulfillment of the following conditions: (1) The Administrator must be assured that under restored private control full operation of the coal mines will be continued. (2) The mining company must adopt and ratify all acts performed by the operating manager during the period of Federal control. In addition, the company is to release the Government and its officials from all claims by or on behalf of the company by reason of Federal control of the mines.

In the event that the mining company declines to adopt the acts of management performed during the period of governmental control, the Administrator may, nevertheless, return the property to the company, retaining, however, such assets and rights as may be necessary to meet obligations incurred or claims that might arise in connection with the Federal operation of the mines of the company.



Replacement Schedules for Men of Draft Age

THE Bureau of Selective Service of the War Manpower Commission, on June 15, 1943, issued revised instructions to employers for the preparation of replacement schedules.¹ For the first time, employers were directed to include fathers on those schedules—this to apply to schedules filed on or after July 1. However, no such employee is to

¹ United States War Manpower Commission, press release PM-4300 (Washington), June 15, 1943.

be released before October 1, 1943. The instructions also limited to 6 months the occupational deferment of men between 18 and 25 who are not fathers, unless the position occupied by such an employee requires the highest skills or qualifications, and no replacement is available.

In listing men for release to the armed forces, employers were told to consider the following factors: "Generally, those who will be replaced first will be those in occupations having the shortest training and replacement time"; and "single men who are equally replaceable should be listed ahead of married men who are equally replaceable, and, likewise, men from these groups should be listed ahead of men with children."

The main effect of these instructions, it was stated, is that fathers in "key" positions listed on replacement schedules will have to justify their continued deferment after October 1 on the basis of occupation rather than on their family status.



Employment of Veterans¹

IN A circular letter of May 15, 1943, the War Department stated that the U. S. Employment Service, which maintains a Veteran's Employment Service, would supervise the reemployment of men discharged from the military forces. Local representatives of the Employment Service are to be notified of any impending discharge, and whenever possible are to be permitted to interview the enlisted men about to be discharged, for employment purposes. Particular attention is to be paid to obtaining employment for such men in positions contributing to the war effort.



Compensation of Salaried Employees for Overtime²

THE Commissioner of Internal Revenue, on July 1, 1943, issued a statement for the guidance of employers who find it necessary to pay their salaried employees additional compensation to maintain productive efficiency on account of the extension of the normal workweek. Employers are not legally required to compensate the supervisory personnel on the same basis as the wage earners—time and a half for all hours worked in excess of 40 in any 1 calendar week. However, it is customary for employers to maintain reasonable pay differentials between the wage earners and their supervisors and among the several levels of supervision. Payment for overtime to the wage earners without any additional compensation to the salaried personnel in many cases has resulted in the wage earners' receiving more than their immediate supervisors and in some instances more than the second and third levels of supervision.

To aid in handling such cases, the Commissioner stated that he had issued instructions to the regional offices of the Salary Stabilization Unit as to the methods under which payments of additional compen-

¹ War Department, Army Service Forces, Office of the Surgeon General, Washington. (Circular letter No. 101.)

² Treasury Department. Bureau of Internal Revenue. Press release No. 37-31, July 1, 1943.

sation to salaried personnel may be determined. In general, the maximum amounts which will be allowed will be those necessary to keep such minimum differentials between the interrelated job classifications as are required for the maintenance of productive efficiency. Salaried employees who earn less or no more for a 40-hour week than the highest hourly paid employee may be compensated for overtime at the same rate as the hourly paid employee. However, the amount allowed will be progressively less as salaries become higher.

The Commissioner's jurisdiction extends to salaried employees receiving more than \$5,000 a year, and to executive, administrative, and professional employees receiving less than \$5,000 a year, who are not represented by a recognized labor organization.



Rules for Admission of Mexican Workers as Railroad Track Laborers¹

THE chairman of the U. S. War Manpower Commission, on June 17, 1943, issued a regulation governing the bringing into the United States of Mexican workers for employment in railroad-track labor. This regulation was pursuant to the terms of the April 29, 1943, agreement between the Republic of Mexico and the United States, covering the temporary migration of Mexican nonagricultural workers.

Under this regulation, officials of the War Manpower Commission were authorized to make all necessary arrangements for and to supervise the selection of workers in the Republic of Mexico for employment by employers in the United States in railroad-track labor, and to enter into necessary contracts with workers on behalf of the United States. In addition, these officials were to enter into necessary contracts and transportation agreements with employers on behalf of the United States.

Such laborers cannot be obtained for any employer engaged in railroad activities unless the supply of workers available within the United States is inadequate and efforts to recruit such workers have been unsuccessful. The employer must enter into a contract with the United States to provide transportation for the workers (with adequate subsistence during travel) and to give them employment. These laborers are to be selected from the pool of workers made available by the War Manpower Commission. Each of the migrants is required to enter into an individual work agreement with the United States Government.

Rights and duties of employers and workers.—Contracts of the employers or of the workers with the United States neither limit nor supplant the laborers' rights and duties under the collective-bargaining agreement which exists between their employer and the craft or class of employees to which they may belong.

The regulation pays particular attention to the rights and duties of employers and of workers. Complaints of either employer or employee concerning noncompliance with contract entered into with the United States are to be reported to the local employment office of the War Manpower Commission or to an appropriate representative of

¹ War Manpower Commission, Regulation No. 6, 8 F. R.-8592 (Washington), June 17, 1943.

the Railroad Retirement Board. No decision with respect to termination of the employment of a worker at the request of an employer shall be made until the manager of the appropriate War Manpower Commission local employment office shall have heard the defense of the worker. This official is empowered to make a decision in the case. Appeals from this decision, by either party, may be made within a specified period to the area director or to the State director of the War Manpower Commission for the State in which the place of employment is situated.

Such an appeal calls for action upon the part of the area or State director. That official must arrange promptly for a hearing, at which the workers and the employer are to be afforded an opportunity to present evidence. Such hearing shall be before a hearing panel, appointed by the area or State director and composed of an equal number of representatives of management and of labor chosen from a roster of panel members nominated by the members of the area management-labor war manpower committee, or if there be no such organization, by the members of the regional management-labor war manpower committee for the region in which the place of employment is situated. This panel shall make appropriate recommendations to the area or State director, who shall notify the worker and the employer of his decision.

Appeals from this decision may be taken within a specified period to the regional director of the War Manpower Commission for the region in which the place of employment is situated, who may affirm, modify, or reverse the decision or may certify any question involved to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. Finally, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission may himself make the ultimate determination of the case.

Employment of Mexicans in other work.—Under certain conditions these Mexican workers may be employed in railroad work other than track labor. Such employment must meet with the approval of the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission or his representative, given after consultation with the employer and with the representative of the craft or class of employees involved. Approval may be granted if such employment is found necessary to meet an emergency situation or if the use of such labor in other than track work is found necessary because of special circumstances.



Compulsory-Transfer Orders Covering Labor in Canada ¹

IN Canada employees in a number of industries and trades have been ordered to transfer to essential employment, under provisions of the National Selective Service Civilian Regulations authorizing the Minister of Labor to forbid the retention of workers in unessential employment without a permit and to direct such persons (in writing) to apply at once for suitable employment.²

¹ Data are from Canadian War Orders and Regulations, 1943 (Ottawa), issues of April 12, May 10 and 17, and June 28; and Canadian Congress Journal, issue of June 1943.

² See Monthly Labor Review, issue of June 1943 (p. 1095) for summary of basic order on compulsory transfer between civilian employments.

Originally the regulations did not apply to the transfer of young persons below 19 years of age but were extended by order-in-council of June 17, 1943 (P. C. 4860), to males 16, 17, and 18 years of age, in order to make possible their direction into high-priority employment. Section 210, subsection (1), of the regulations as amended, was revoked, and the following provisions were substituted:

The Minister may by order forbid any employer, or group, or class of employers, to retain in employment after a specified date any person, or group, or class of persons, to whom the National Selective Service Mobilization Regulations apply and who belong to an age class, or part of an age class, which has been designated for the purpose of the said regulations, and any male person who has attained his sixteenth birthday and has not attained his nineteenth birthday, without obtaining a permit in prescribed form from a selective service officer; or may require any employer, or group, or class of employers, to terminate at such time and in such manner as he may specify the employment of any such person, or group, or class of such persons.

The Minister of Labor has stated that the transfer orders cover men employed in the restricted occupations who are in four age and marital classes, as follows: (1) Every male born in any year from 1917 to 1924 (inclusive) who has reached age 16 (formerly 19); (2) every male born from 1902 to 1916 (inclusive) who, at July 15, 1940, was unmarried, or divorced or judicially separated, or a widower without child or children; (3) every male born from 1902 to 1916 (inclusive) who has, since July 15, 1940, become a widower without child or children now living; and (4) every male born from 1902 to 1916 (inclusive) who, since July 15, 1940, has been divorced or judicially separated.

Like other men in the designated pursuits and of the specified age classes, married men and those discharged from the armed forces, after active service in the present war, will be required to register if they are of the ages covered by a transfer order, but they will not be directed into alternative employment for the present. Men were assured by the Minister of Labor that they will not be directed to employment where vacancies arise out of industrial disputes. Measures will be taken to insure fair minimum earnings for the respective classes of work to which men are directed. Men are to have the right to appeal to a court of referees from a direction for transfer.

Occupations and Industries Covered

The first compulsory employment order by the Minister of Labor dated May 4, 1943, pursuant to Section 210 of the National Selective Service Civilian Regulations as amended, specified that no employer might retain in employment after May 19, 1943, persons subject to the National Selective Service Mobilization Regulations in the following industries and occupations, without a permit:

Industries: Taverns, liquor, wine and beer stores; retail sale of confectionery, candy, tobacco, books, stationery, news; barber shops and beauty parlors; retail and wholesale florists; service stations (gasoline-filling stations); retail sale of motor vehicles or accessories; retail sale of sporting goods or musical instruments.

Occupations (whether in above industries or not): Waiter, taxi driver, elevator operator, hotel bellboy, domestic servant; any occupation in or directly associated with entertainment, including but not restricted to theaters, film agencies, motion-picture companies, clubs,

bowling alleys, pool rooms; any occupation in or directly associated with dyeing, cleaning and pressing; baths; guide service; shoe shining.

On May 15, 1943, a similar order, becoming effective on June 15, 1943, was issued for the following additional industries and trades:

Any occupation in or associated with retail stores; any occupation in or associated with the manufacturing of feathers, plumes, and artificial flowers; chewing gum; wine; lace goods; greeting cards; jewelry; any occupation in or associated with distilling alcohol for beverage; any occupation in or associated with the factory production of statuary and art goods; any occupation in the operation of ice-cream parlors and soda fountains; any of the following occupations: bus boys; charmen and cleaners; custom furriers; dancing teachers; dishwashers; doormen and starters; greens keepers; grounds keepers; porters (other than in railway train service); private chauffeurs.

The orders place obligations on both employers and employees, according to the Minister of Labor. Employers may not retain or employ men of the designated classes without permits. The men affected must register with the employment offices by the date specified. If farm or other essential work is not immediately available for the registrants, permits are to be issued to allow them to remain in their present employment. However, such permits may be canceled at any time when the men's services are needed for high-priority jobs.

Wage and Price Stabilization

Cost of Living and Price Regulation in Mexico ¹

Changes in Cost of Living

COMPILATIONS by the Statistical Division of the Department of National Economy of Mexico show that Mexico has been undergoing a great increase in the cost of living and in the general price structure. Although this rise was noticeable after December 1941, it has been much greater in recent months.

This increase is quite apparent in a series of indexes prepared by the Division. The indexes showing the cost of living in Mexico City, based on 1934=100, indicate that the general cost-of-living index, which stood at 179 in December 1941, rose 5 percent in the first 8 months of 1942 in August, 6 percent in December, and 16 percent in the first 4 months of 1943 (table 1). The index of 231 in April 1943 represents an increase in that month alone of 5 percent.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Mexico City ¹

Period	Indexes (monthly average 1934=100) of—				Period	Indexes (monthly average 1934=100) of—			
	All items	Food ²	Cloth- ing ³	House- hold articles ⁴		All items	Food ²	Cloth- ing ³	House- hold articles ⁴
1934.....	100	100	100	100	1942:				
1935.....	108	107	102	114	October.....	195	186	247	207
1936.....	114	114	118	116	November....	199	188	261	216
1937.....	139	137	125	130	December.....	199	187	263	213
1938.....	153	158	146	133	1943:				
1939.....	155	156	168	138	January.....	204	192	270	219
1940.....	157	154	186	152	February....	213	201	286	223
1941.....	164	158	209	174	March.....	219	206	283	241
1942.....	188	179	244	194	April.....	231	216	298	262
1942:									
August.....	188	178	246	197					
September..	195	186	252	201					

¹ Data are from Revista de Estadística, monthly publication of Mexican Department of National Economy.

² White bread, pasteurized milk, meat (beef, pork and lamb), corn dough, tortillas, lard (pork), beans, sugar (granulated, second grade), pulque, eggs, coffee (second grade), pastes (white, for soup).

³ Women's shoes, children's shoes, men's shoes, light-weight cotton dresses, work clothing, wool sweaters, cotton underwear, cotton stockings.

⁴ Coal, soap, candles.

There were similar rises in the cost of food, clothing, and household articles. The food index, which stood at 170 in December 1941, rose 5 percent in August 1942, another 5 percent in December, and 16 percent in April 1943—or a total rise of 27 percent from the December 1941 figure. Clothing advanced 12 percent (from 219 in December

¹ Summary of Report No. 234 (of May 14, 1943) from A. W. Patterson, United States Embassy, Mexico City, D. F.

1941) to August 1942, 7 percent to December, and 11 percent to April 1943—or a total increase of 36 percent from December 1941. Household articles, which had fallen from 199 in December 1941, to 197 the following August, rebounded 8 percent by December, and advanced another 23 percent by April 1943—or a total increase of 32 percent after December 1941.

Table 2 gives indexes of wholesale food prices in Mexico City, based on 1929=100, and table 3 contains indexes of certain retail, principally food, prices in that city, based on 1930=100. Certain of these indexes are said to be somewhat volatile, partly because of seasonal factors and partly because of the failure to include sufficient components, but it is considered that they reflect in general the growing upward pressure on the price level.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Wholesale Food Prices in Mexico City¹

Period	Indexes (monthly average 1929=100) of—					
	All items	Vegetable products ²	Meat products ³	Processed foods ⁴	Fresh fruits, vegetables ⁵	Livestock feed ⁶
1929.....	100	100	100	100	100	100
1930.....	99	118	94	96	92	105
1931.....	89	109	88	81	67	82
1932.....	81	91	77	82	80	72
1933.....	82	86	74	96	79	82
1934.....	82	88	72	100	82	81
1935.....	88	94	83	95	90	94
1936.....	98	117	95	95	82	96
1937.....	117	137	111	116	99	130
1938.....	123	147	119	129	90	148
1939.....	124	146	120	120	95	137
1940.....	124	137	122	123	113	123
1941.....	133	150	130	127	116	139
1942.....	153	173	158	132	127	163
1942:						
August.....	155	175	164	132	105	172
September.....	156	174	165	132	123	172
October.....	157	170	169	134	99	175
November.....	162	166	174	137	140	170
December.....	165	168	178	140	134	173
1943:						
January.....	153	166	175	140	132	182
February.....	162	170	167	148	133	207

¹ Data are from *Revista de Estadística*, monthly publication of Mexican Department of National Economy.

² Rice, coffee, dried chiles, beans, chick peas, corn, lima beans, potatoes.

³ Beef, pork, lard, eggs, store cheese.

⁴ Sugar, brown sugar, vegetable lard, starches, salt, flour.

⁵ Onions, green chiles, tomatoes, oranges, bananas.

⁶ Alfalfa, barley corn, beans, barley straw.

The acceleration of the rise in food prices in early 1943 is evident from the indexes shown. Briefly, the price of food staples seemed fairly well in hand until February 1943, when prices of vegetable oils soared; this was due to the greatly increased industrial demand resulting from the virtual cessation of imports of copra in 1942, to speculation, and to other factors. Early in March, rice, corn, wheat, beans, and other products followed suit. Rice, officially pegged at 38 centavos a kilo, for a time sold at over a peso in Mexico City (when available for any price). And corn, used to make the dough for the tortillas which are the daily diet of the mass of the people, was either unavailable or sold at exorbitant prices.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Certain Retail Prices in Mexico City¹

Period	Indexes (monthly average 1930=100) of—				
	Cereal products ²	Fresh vegetables ³	Processed vegetables ⁴	Meat products ⁵	Cloth ⁶ and clothing
1930.....	100	100	100	100	100
1931.....	100	117	91	88	90
1932.....	89	77	83	76	65
1933.....	78	78	101	72	72
1934.....	87	77	98	65	86
1935.....	83	113	96	77	84
1936.....	85	93	100	87	91
1937.....	102	101	120	105	93
1938.....	112	96	126	114	103
1939.....	115	107	129	115	119
1940.....	109	151	125	115	130
1941.....	135	136	137	123	136
1942.....	169	180	155	151	167
1942:					
August.....	176	144	158	157	159
September.....	176	150	157	157	187
October.....	174	204	158	155	164
November.....	170	208	159	160	157
December.....	169	227	157	164	178
1943:					
January.....	173	⁷ 160	160	165	182
February.....	176	⁷ 134	172	177	188
March.....	189	136	183	182	195
April.....	197	147	193	200	205

¹ Data are from Revista De Estadística, monthly publication of Mexican Department of National Economy.

² Rice of 2 grades, coffee of 3 grades, beans of 3 grades, chick peas, lima beans, lentils, corn, yellow and white potatoes.

³ Onions, small green chiles, tomatoes.

⁴ Sesame seed oil, sugar (granulated, second grade), brown sugar, flour (second grade), white bread, pastes for soup, tortillas.

⁵ Beef (two grades), pork, lamb, pasteurized milk, lard, store cheese.

⁶ Flannel, coarse muslin, common shawls, cotton shirts, domestic felt hats, straw hats, men's shoes.

⁷ The index of fresh vegetables is made up of only three components. The sharp decline in this index from December 1942 to February 1943 is due mostly to a decline in the price of green chiles.

Measures for Price Control

Price ceilings.—The Government bases its price control primarily on official decrees and resolutions establishing price ceilings for a limited number of articles. This control is administered by the Ministry of National Economy, except in the case of drugs and medicinal products, which are controlled by the Department of Health.

The Ministry has established ceiling prices, effective throughout the Republic, for the following articles, in accordance with decrees and resolutions published in the Diario Oficial: Rice, salt, sugar, gasoline, crude rubber, hides, tinplate, glacial acetic acid, soda ash, caustic soda, horseshoe nails, black sheet, galvanized sheet, and black and galvanized steel pipe. Ceilings were likewise fixed for the Federal District, for beans, corn, corn dough, tortillas, white bread, beef, pasteurized milk, charcoal, cement, and identification photographs. The Ministry has likewise fixed ceilings for a number of articles, applicable in other parts of Mexico, by decrees in the official publications of the States concerned.

Table 4 gives a comparison of the official ceiling prices for certain articles (principally food) and retail prices quoted in 11 representative markets in Mexico City, on or about April 29, 1943. Actual retail prices in Mexico City, expressed as percentages of the ceiling prices, were approximately as follows: Rice, 129 to 173 percent, according to quality; beans, 148 to 186 percent; corn, 200 percent; corn dough, 133 percent; tortillas, 114 percent; white bread, 170 percent;

pasteurized milk, 161 percent; beef, 109 to 184 percent; charcoal, 100 percent; cement, 200 percent; identification photographs, 150 percent; salt, 143 to 187 percent; sugar, 106 to 142 percent; gasoline, 100 percent; tinsplate, 138 to 146 percent; soda ash, 75 percent; caustic soda, 71 percent; horseshoe nails, 154 percent; black sheet, 157 to 243 percent; galvanized sheet, 250 percent; black steel pipe, 112 to 236 percent; galvanized steel pipe, 154 to 231 percent.

TABLE 4.—*Ceiling Prices and Retail Prices in 11 Representative Markets in Mexico City, April 1943*

Article	Price per kilogram			Article	Price per kilogram		
	Ceiling price	Average of quoted prices	Range of prices		Ceiling price	Average of quoted prices	Range of prices
Rice:	Pesos ¹	Pesos ¹	Pesos ¹	Beef trimmings:	Pesos ¹	Pesos ¹	Pesos ¹
Extra.....	0.45	0.78	0.45-1.00	With bone.....	1.00	1.38	1.00-1.80
First grade.....	.36	.49	.40-.70	Without bone.....	1.20	1.69	1.20-2.50
Second grade.....	.34	.44	.38-.50	Beefsteak.....	1.60	2.13	1.80-2.40
Black beans, second grade uncleaned.....	.22	.41	.35-.45	Rump steak.....	1.90	2.08	1.60-2.50
Bayo beans:				Scraps.....	.55	.91	.55-1.00
First grade.....	.22	.40	.32-.45	Table salt.....	.14	.20	.10-.28
Second grade.....	.21	.31	.24-.45	Ground salt.....	.15	.28	.20-.40
Corn.....	.12	.24	.20-.40	Sugar:			
Corn dough.....	.09	.12	.10-.15	Granulated, standard.....	.34	.40	.35-.50
Tortillas.....	.22	.25	.22-.26	Loaf, standard.....	.36	.38	.35-.40
Pasteurized milk (per liter).....	.31	.50	.40-.75	Cube, standard.....	.37	.52	.45-.60
Charcoal.....	.10	.10	.10-.12	Granulated, refined.....	.36	.51	.38-.60
Dressed beef:				Loaf, refined.....	.38	.43	.36-.50
First grade.....	1.00	1.75	1.00-2.50	Cube, refined.....	.39	.51	.42-.60
Second grade.....	.85	1.56	.80-2.50	Domino and lump....	.41	.48	.42-.60
Third grade.....	.70	1.26	.25-2.00				

¹ Average exchange rate of peso in April 1943=20.8 cents.

Control of exports.—Another form of price control exercised by the Ministry of National Economy is the control of exports of certain scarce commodities. By this means the Government can prevent such articles from being exported, and thus forestall a further tightening in the supply situation with consequent upward pressure on prices. Permits for the export of controlled articles, as specified by various official decrees, must be obtained from the Ministry's Department of Commerce. Businessmen's committees aid this department in the granting of permits for export of many of these articles. These committees approve or disapprove the applications, although the actual permits are granted by the Ministry.

A measure of control over the export of such agricultural products as bananas, chicle, coffee, pineapples, and certain fibers is exercised by Government-subsidized "companies of limited liability, public interest, and variable capital." These companies have been formed in the interests of the producers of these products (as well as of the public) and to conserve their production.

Reporting of stocks.—By decree of March 31, 1942, all farmers, merchants, and industrialists with capital of over 500 pesos were required to make monthly reports on their stocks of the following articles: Corn, wheat, beans, rice, flour, salt, sugar, coffee, untanned hides, leather, tanned hides, medicines, corrugated iron for reenforcing concrete, iron and steel for the manufacture of tools and farm imple-

ments, cement and building materials, tinplate, and rayon. By subsequent decrees, monthly reports were required on stocks of scrap iron, corrugated iron, glycerine, tires, and tubes.

Government intervention in the market.—A decree of May 3, 1941, established an agency, under the control of the Ministry of National Economy, to intervene in the market for the purpose of regulating the prices of commodities of prime necessity. This agency buys from 15 to 20 percent of a given crop from the producers, and warehouses it, letting the market work freely unless the price of the commodity becomes too high, in which case it intervenes in the market by underselling private dealers. If intervention has not been necessary by the end of the crop year, the agency may export its accumulated stock.

To May 14, 1943, the Government had intervened directly in the market, by purchase and sale, in the case of four commodities: Bayo beans (medium-sized pink beans which are the most widely consumed type of "frijoles" and one of the staples of Mexican diet), rice, lard, and corn. The Government has also intervened indirectly in both the wheat market and the salt market.

Furthering the policy of Government intervention in the market, a consortium, composed of the governmental agency described above and three Government-controlled banking institutions, was created by a decree of March 2, 1943. This consortium is authorized to purchase rice, beans, corn, wheat, and any other product determined by the Ministries of National Economy and Agriculture. Penalties named in this decree, for evading the price ceilings for these products, include a fine of up to 30,000 pesos, imprisonment up to 15 days, and in recurrent cases, revocation of the offender's license to do business and closing of his firm.

Rationing of Commodities

Mexico has not resorted to rationing except in the case of rubber, rubber products, and cement. Decrees of February 24 and March 13, 1942, restricted the manufacture of rubber tires and tubes to firms which had been producing these articles previously. In addition, the decrees provided that sales by these manufacturers should not exceed in any month one-twelfth of the company's total 1941 sales.

According to an agreement between the United States and Mexico in the autumn of 1942, the United States agreed to supply Mexico with sufficient rubber to bring its total available for domestic manufacture up to a fixed amount per annum. Subsequent to this agreement, a decree was issued (under date of November 17, 1942), which stipulated that all rubber produced in Mexico or imported should be apportioned by the Ministry of National Economy to the rubber-manufacturing industry. This industry was divided into three groups, depending on whether the articles manufactured were "indispensable," "necessary," or "nonessential." The decree also made further provision for reports to the Ministry by the manufacturers, on stocks, capacity, and monthly sales.

Another decree, dated March 13, 1943, limited 1943 production and sales of passenger-car tires and tubes by manufacturers to 75 percent of 1941 sales, and of truck tires and tubes to 110 percent of 1941 sales.

A further rubber-conservation measure was enacted in a decree of April 17, 1943. This measure provided that in cities of over 30,000 inhabitants, all passenger cars, with certain exceptions, were to be laid up one day in each week.

Rationing of cement was provided for in a decree of October 13, 1942. This decree established a Regulating Commission for the Cement Business, composed of representatives of cement manufacturers, with the Minister of National Economy as chairman. One of the duties of this commission is the allocation and filling of orders in accordance with the relative importance of the purchaser's needs.

In the rayon industry, the Ministry of National Economy is authorized to exercise a minor form of rationing control over production, through a provision whereby no mill may operate more looms than the number which it has registered with the Ministry.

Rent Control

Control of rents in the Federal District was provided for by decree of July 10, 1942. The purpose of this decree was to freeze rents in the Federal District at July 10, 1942, levels. Administration of the decree was entrusted to the Office of Government of the Central Department, the governing agency of the Federal District.

This agency exercises its supervision in the following manner: All rental contracts for sums of over 50 pesos a month must be registered with the Treasury of the Central Department. If the Central Department receives a complaint from a tenant that he is being charged a rent higher than that in effect on the ceiling date, and if the charge is borne out by the previous contract, the Central Department may force the owner to make adjustments satisfactory to the tenant, under penalty of fine.

Apparently this measure has not checked the increase in rents, primarily because of the general failure or inability of tenants to take advantage of the law. The rise in rents in turn is due primarily to the continuing increase in the population of Mexico City and to the accentuation of the housing shortage because of the difficulty of obtaining building materials and supplies for residential construction purposes.

Public Reaction to Rising Prices

Since the effects of the war first made themselves felt in Mexico in the form of increased prices for certain articles, the Mexican press from time to time has devoted space to the subject of rising prices. It was not, however, until the general public (particularly the working class) was seriously affected by sharp rises in the prices of many food staples in February and March of this year, that public opinion awoke to the situation and expressed itself vociferously on the subject through the medium of the press, public meetings, parades, and letters to governmental officials.

The Mexican Government and the Mexican people are face to face with a very serious situation. There is no doubt that a large segment of the population with low incomes is suffering from the rapid rise in prices of food and other articles of necessity.

Many possible solutions have been suggested by observers. These solutions include a more comprehensive and rigorous system of price control, heavier taxes, more active stimulation of savings and purchase of Government bonds, revision and extension of the price-ceiling system, more general restriction of consumer purchasing power by rationing, severe and enforced penalties for speculators and other violators of the controls, and the enlistment of public opinion to support enforcement.

A temporarily lower wartime standard of living in the immediate future for certain classes is probably inevitable. Whether this lower standard will come through voluntary acceptance of enforced controls, or through further uncontrolled price inflation, remains to be seen.



Wage and Price Stabilization in New Zealand¹

REGULATIONS² for the purpose of checking inflation and promoting economic stability in New Zealand were issued on December 15, 1942, and amended on March 17 and March 30, 1943. The stabilization plan was formulated by the Economic Stabilization Committee which was appointed in 1940 to study recommendations regarding stabilization of prices, wages, and costs, that had been made by the Economic Stabilization Conference held in that year.

The stabilization plan adopted on December 15, 1942, provided for the extension of price ceilings to additional essential commodities and services, the freezing of rents on additional classes of premises, and stabilization of wages and salaries. Another important provision of the Economic Stabilization Emergency Regulations required that a special wartime price index should be compiled, which would adequately record changes in prices, and thus form a suitable basis for the adjustment of wages and salaries in accordance with alterations in the cost of living.

Terms of Regulations

Administration.—Responsibility for general administration of the program was given to the Minister of Industries and Commerce, under the terms of the regulations as originally promulgated. An economic Stabilization Commission was to be established to assist the Minister. It is to make recommendations (after investigation) in relation to economic stabilization, and may also exercise administrative functions, if so required by the Minister.

The Minister appointed the following members to the Commission: the chairman of the Bank of New Zealand, the secretary of the Federation of Labor, the Minister of Industrial Manpower, the chairman of directors of the New Zealand Cooperative Dairy Co., the president of the New Zealand Manufacturers' Association, and the national president of the Federated Seaman's Union of New Zealand. The secretary to the Treasury of New Zealand was appointed Director of Stabilization.

¹ Data are from reports from the United States Legation at Wellington, Nos. 16 (February 9, 1943), 32 (March 25), 38 (April 7), 46 (April 20), 51 (May 11), and 69 (June 9, 1943); and International Labor Review (Montreal), March 1943.

² Economic Stabilization Emergency Regulations/ 1942.

Stabilization of rents.—Rent stabilization applies to all land, buildings, and chattels which are or may be rented, except dwelling houses, to which the Fair Rents Act of 1936 (as amended) applies. Rents were frozen at the September 1, 1942, level. Basic rent is defined as the rent paid on that date, except where an agreement to pay a higher or lower rent was made before the base date for any subsequent period. In such cases the agreed rent is the basic rent, subject to certain rights of the Supreme Court and magistrates to determine fair rents for property.

Landlords may not require premium payments in addition to rent. They must keep registers giving particulars of each tenancy and make them available to authorized agents.

The Minister of Justice was empowered to form as many rent commissions as he might deem necessary. On reference from the court, these commissions might investigate applications for fixing a fair rent and approve any agreement made in writing by a landlord and tenant fixing the fair rent of any property (whether or not an application was made to the court to fix a fair rent).

Under the December 15 regulations, the Supreme Court was empowered to determine a fair rental for property generally and the magistrates were permitted to review only those cases in which the rent did not exceed £520 a year, or in which the parties agreed in writing that a magistrate or any specified magistrate should have jurisdiction. When the regulations were amended on March 17, 1943, the Supreme Court's jurisdiction was limited to cases in which the basic rent exceeded £525 a year, and the magistrates were given jurisdiction in all other cases. However, regardless of the annual rental, the landlord and the tenant might, by an agreement in writing, select either the court or the magistrates to hear their case.

Stabilization of pay.—Wages, salaries, directors' fees, etc., were frozen at the rates prevailing on November 15, 1942. Wages commissioners were empowered to set basic rates of remuneration for new positions and to settle any disputes arising in connection with basic rates, when an employee shifts from one position to another. Conciliation commissioners were named as the officials to settle such disputes under the terms of the original regulations, but in the regulations, as amended, the term "wages commissioners" was substituted for "conciliation commissioners," enabling the Minister to appoint either conciliation commissioners or other specially qualified persons.

The Court of Arbitration may revise rates downwards if they are above the level on the base date. Bonuses paid during the year are included in determining basic rates of pay.

Advances in pay may be made under certain conditions as, for example, when a person does additional work. However, for the duration of the war, no awards of the Court of Arbitration, apprenticeship orders, or industrial agreements may alter the established minimum rates of pay or the principal conditions of employment, except to remove anomalies.

When changes in pay to conform with movements in the price level were authorized, the list of stabilized commodities was increased from 38 to 110 items. This freeze in prices became effective on December 15, 1942, the base period for calculation of the wartime price index. In accordance with changes in the wartime price index—computed quarterly—the Court of Arbitration is to make a general

order increasing or reducing rates of pay, whenever the index rises or falls by not less than 5 percent. The first general order is required to vary the rates of pay when the wartime price index increases by not less than 2½ percent.

Any general order varying the rates of pay is to apply only to the first £6 per week earned by a worker. The Court of Arbitration may reduce the weekly earnings figure as it thinks fit for female workers, junior workers, and apprentices.

As a safeguard against decisions that may not conform with the general plan of stabilization, the Director of Stabilization may appeal any decision of a wages commissioner.

Every person or authority with emergency jurisdiction in fixing rates of pay is required to exercise his authority in conformity with the stabilization plan.

Stabilization of prices.—As already stated, prices of 110 items were stabilized. In addition, penalties were provided for selling goods at "unreasonably high" prices. A price will be so designated if it produces more than a reasonable commercial profit, provided that a price fixed by the Price Tribunal shall not be deemed to be unreasonably high. Replacement costs may not be considered in determining whether prices are unreasonably high. To stamp out black-market operations and profiteering, buyers were made subject to penalties for participating in a sale in contravention of these regulations.

Authority was granted to the Price Tribunal to order price reductions in an amount or percentage or in the normal mark-up over cost prices. Installment sales will be deemed to have occurred when the buyer takes possession of the goods, instead of when the final installment is paid. The Price Tribunal may also prohibit the sale of goods, pending the fixation of prices.

Wartime Price Index

The base period for calculation of the wartime index of prices is December 15, 1942. Essential commodities and services, covering a wide range, including rents, are given weights in the index. However, according to the Prime Minister, it is intended to cover only "the goods and services really needed for the average family in time of war."

Those administering the stabilization plan, and particularly the Minister in Charge of Stabilization, attach importance to having everyone understand and cooperate with the plan. An essential factor in stabilization is the wartime price index. The Government's purpose is to keep prices and wages constant, so that money will buy the same quantities of essential goods as in the recent past.

It is not possible to compare the wartime price index with the ordinary price index, which is now withdrawn, for earlier periods, as the composition of the two series differs in several respects. Numerous alterations were made in the schedule of commodities covered by the various groups and subgroups in the wartime index.

Weights were revised generally to allow for present-day consumption of the various commodities covered by the index. A new group of products was added, consisting of fresh fruit and vegetables other than potatoes and onions, which (under the stabilization plan, as in the previous index) were included in the groceries group. The

dwellings for which rents entered into the index were subdivided to give the relative weights to private and Government houses. Clothing and footwear items were divided to give correct relative weights to the requirements of men, women, and children, respectively. The indexes for the clothing, footwear, and household-drapery group, and for most subgroups of the miscellaneous group, were arrived at by the aggregate-expenditure method, thus bringing them into line with the remaining groups in the index.

In view of the purpose for which the wartime price index was to be computed, prices of milk, eggs, meat, potatoes, onions, and fresh fruits and vegetables were to be adjusted according to normal seasonal variations in their respective prices.

The composite wartime price index for the base period, December 15, 1942, was 1000. On March 15, 1943, the first quarter for which the index was calculated, it stood at 1011, or 1.1 percent higher than on December 15, 1942. Advances in the prices of fresh fruit and vegetables and milk and eggs—after the necessary adjustments were made for normal seasonal movements—were primarily responsible for the December to March rise in the index. However, the increase during the quarter was insufficient to require an adjustment in wages and salaries.

Government Justification of Subsidies

Speaking on stabilization, the Prime Minister called the policy absolutely necessary, and mentioned that a part of the program was to keep the price of bread, butter, cheese, sugar, tea, coal, electricity, and other commodities in the worker's budget at a minimum. He stated that this was being done by an expenditure of thousands of pounds in subsidy payments, and that it was better for the State and people collectively to pay subsidies—each contributing according to his or her ability—than to have the burden fall on the poor, and depress their living standards still lower.

The Prime Minister added that New Zealand had succeeded in retarding the increase in cost of living better than any other country and that the income going into homes had more than doubled in a few years. Those who have criticized by saying that the Government should have "introduced stabilization 2 years ago are now seeing the tremendous complexities of any stabilization scheme."

Need for Reducing Purchasing Power

In March 1943, members of the Farmers Federation unanimously agreed to a resolution in which it was stated that the stabilization of prices and wages dealt with only one side of the inflation problem. This program could be effective only in part in achieving economic stabilization, as long as the surplus purchasing power in the hands of the public was not siphoned off. It was therefore recommended that excess purchasing power should be absorbed by appropriate taxation and compulsory savings, as a complement to wage and price fixation, in order to avoid the inflationary tendency.

A statement made by the Minister of Finance placed the increase in purchasing power at £45,000,000 in 4 years, during which the amount of consumer goods had declined by £54,000,000.

Labor Acceptance of Policy

From the point of view of the New Zealand Federation of Labor, the fact that changes in rates of pay are to be automatic, when justified by variations in the cost of living, stands out as a fundamental gain. Heretofore workers have endeavored, without complete success, to secure adjustments in wages by argument before the Court of Arbitration. The last 5-percent wage increase was ordered by the court in August 1940. Efforts made by the federation, late in 1941, to obtain a general wage increase to compensate for the rise in cost of living were unsuccessful. Thus, the automatic method of adjustment "represents a considerable advance in the endeavors being made to protect, in a time of war, the standard of living of the workers."

Under the terms of the economic stabilization plan, the Arbitration Court has one concern, namely the level of retail prices as shown by the wartime price index. If that index records a 5-percent rise, the court must increase all rates of wages. Moreover, the Federation pointed out, the order will relate to the actual rates of wages being paid, and not to arbitration-award wages, and it must grant as nearly as possible the full increase recorded by the index.

As to the wartime price index itself, organized labor stated that it "overcomes practically all of the objections made to the retail-price index by the federation during the hearing on the application made by it in November 1941 to the court for a general increase in wage rates."

At the sixth annual conference held by the New Zealand Federation of Labor, in April 1943, stabilization of wages and prices was accepted as a wartime necessity. Both the president of the federation (who is a member of the Stabilization Commission) and the New Zealand Minister of Finance urged the adoption of the stabilization policy as the safe course for the working people during wartime, on the ground that it protected their interests and offered them a safe foundation for post-war development.

The president of the federation stated that the wartime index of prices was an improvement over the earlier index, as it records the movement of prices more accurately. Inclusion of such commodities as fruit and vegetables makes the index much more sensitive in recording the movement than the old index in which it was taken for granted that items not listed were subject to the same variations in price as those which were listed.

The successful handling of the rise in potato prices by application of the subsidy principle on two occasions was cited as evidence that the Government was adhering to the spirit of the stabilization agreement. As planning of the annual food crop becomes a reality, the president of the federation foresaw normal retail prices and not shortage prices (which necessitate subsidy).

Delegates at the conference expressed different views on the stabilization policy, one member stating that although a policy of wage increases might be more popular, the workers would be worse off without stabilization. In summing up, the president of the organization stated that nothing said during the discussion had shaken the case for stabilization and that it could not be assailed.

Productivity of Labor and Industry

Wartime Productivity in Mining Industries¹

Productivity, 1939-42

PRODUCTIVITY in most of the important mining industries during 1942 was as high as or higher than it was in 1939, despite the considerable expansion of production and the many obstacles to efficient operation encountered in wartime. Only in lead and zinc mining has productivity declined significantly since the outbreak of war in Europe. Output of recoverable lead and zinc per man-hour fell 12 percent between 1939 and 1942, although output of ore per man-hour increased nearly 5 percent between the same years. In coal mining, production of crude petroleum and natural gas, iron mining, and copper mining, productivity in 1942 was higher than in 1939.

In iron mining, output of ore per man-hour decreased between 1941 and 1942, but remained about 11 percent above the 1939 level. A small reduction in productivity also occurred in anthracite mining in 1942. The extraction of crude petroleum and natural gas per man-hour, on the other hand, rose substantially between 1941 and 1942, largely because of the sharp curtailment of well drilling. In the latter year, output per man-hour was 18 percent greater than in 1939 (see table).²

Indexes of Production and Output Per Man-Hour for Selected Mining Industries, 1939-42

Industry	Indexes (1939=100) of —							
	Production				Output per man-hour			
	1939	1940	1941	1942	1939	1940	1941	1942
Bituminous coal.....	100.0	116.7	130.2	146.9	100.0	100.4	103.4	103.0
Anthracite.....	100.0	100.0	105.8	111.9	100.0	101.1	105.7	100.3
Crude petroleum, natural gas, and natural gasoline.....	100.0	107.1	111.9	111.6	100.0	98.8	104.5	118.0
Iron ore.....	100.0	142.5	178.6	202.7	100.0	118.8	119.7	110.7
Copper:								
Recoverable metal.....	100.0	120.8	131.8	147.9	100.0	104.2	100.3	101.8
Ore.....	100.0	125.4	142.0	172.0	100.0	108.2	108.1	118.4
Lead and zinc:								
Recoverable metal.....	100.0	113.4	117.7	123.3	100.0	97.8	95.7	88.2
Ore.....	100.0	116.3	133.7	146.2	100.0	100.3	108.7	104.6

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Productivity and Technological Development by Celia Star Gody.

² The indexes of production and output per man-hour shown in the table are from a mimeographed report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics—Productivity and Unit Labor Cost in Selected Mining Industries, 1935-1942—which may be obtained on request. The report also includes indexes of employment, man-hours, pay rolls, and unit labor cost.

The maintenance of pre-war productivity levels represents no mean achievement, since the difficulties of wartime operation are probably more serious in mining than in manufacturing industries. Various difficulties encountered in the mining industries are illustrated in the article on productivity in copper mining, which appears on page 258 of this issue. The experience of most countries indicates that productivity in the mineral extractive industries is likely to be impaired during periods of war or preparation for war. The loss of skilled miners to the armed forces and to competing industries is usually severe; labor turnover, absenteeism, and, in some cases, labor disputes, also handicap operations seriously. In metal mining, moreover, the expansion of production necessitates the mining of ores of lower metal content. Thus, the 23-percent rise in the output of recoverable lead and zinc between 1939 and 1942 was made possible only by a 46-percent increase in ore production. The 48-percent increase in recoverable-copper production during the same period was accompanied by an increase in ore production of 72 percent.

Productivity in United States and Foreign Countries, First and Second World Wars

Fragmentary statistics available for the first World War and for European war economies in recent years indicate that declines in man-hour output may be expected in metal mining and may occur in other extractive industries as well. Indexes published by the WPA National Research Project³ show that productivity increased about 8 percent in bituminous-coal mining in the United States and about 25 percent in anthracite mining between 1914 and 1918. Iron-ore output per man-hour, on the other hand, dropped 11 percent between 1915 and 1918; the extraction of nonferrous metals per man-hour declined about 10 percent during the same interval. Unpublished data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for a portion of the copper-mining industry indicate that declines in output per man-shift between 1915 and 1919 were as high as 30 percent. The declines were attributed by the operators to slowdowns on the job and to radical propaganda, but labor spokesmen contended that management's "rustling card" employment policy had driven the most experienced and efficient men out of the mines.

Coal output per man employed underground apparently increased in most other warring countries from 1914 to 1915 and in some countries to 1916, but declined thereafter. In Great Britain, for example, output per man rose 15 percent between 1914 and 1915 and fell 14 percent from 1915 to 1918. An advance in productivity of 18 percent between 1914 and 1916 in Prussia was followed by a decline of 11 percent during the years 1916 to 1918. In Austria, between 1916 and 1918, output per man dropped 26 percent.⁴

Only scanty reports are, of course, available for output and employment during the present conflict, but experience seems to parallel

³ Report No. 8-2: Production, Employment, and Productivity in the Mineral Extractive Industries 1880-1938.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Mines, Bulletin No. 2145: A Miner's Yearly and Daily Output of Coal.

that of World War I. Since the German economy has operated under wartime conditions since 1933, tendencies toward decreased productivity were already apparent by 1937. Output per employee in coal mining rose steadily from 1933 to 1937. The output of recoverable copper per employee, however, declined about 21 percent between 1933 and 1937 as the metal content of the ores fell from 2.9 percent to 2.1 percent. Output of recoverable iron per employee increased 30 percent from 1933 to 1936, but declined 13 percent between 1936 and 1937. Lead-and-zinc-ore production per employee in 1937 was 19 percent lower than in 1933. A gain of 10 percent in the output of crude petroleum per employee between 1933 and 1935 was eliminated by a loss of 19 percent between 1935 and 1937. All these figures refer to output per employee, not to output per man-hour. Although no statistics are available for man-hours worked in the individual mining industries, data for all mining combined show that average hours per wage earner increased about 15 percent in Germany during the period considered. Losses in output per man-hour, therefore, were doubtless greater than the declines in output per employee.⁵ More recently, there have been reports, even prior to the intensified bombing of the Ruhr, that productivity and production in the German coal mines was declining. The decline was generally attributed to the shortage of skilled, physically fit miners.

Japan's war on China began in 1937, and difficulties of obtaining adequate supplies of coal arose shortly thereafter. Output per man-hour in coal mining apparently declined between 1936 and 1938, and a severe coal shortage occurred during the winter of 1939-40. The Japanese press stated that the shortage developed because the coal mines had already achieved capacity in 1937 and the development of new mines had been hampered by the shortage of labor and material. It was also reported that labor productivity in the coal mines had declined. In order to stimulate increased production, the government arranged to grant subsidies to coal operators.⁶

The problems faced by Great Britain in obtaining adequate supplies of coal were discussed in the November 1942 issue of the *Monthly Labor Review*. Output per man per day dropped 8 percent between the outbreak of the war and June 1942. Reports for 1943 reveal that the output rate is lower than it was last year, despite an increase in employment and despite the special measures taken by the Government to increase production.⁷ The decrease in productivity has been variously attributed to the increasing average age of the labor force, losses to the armed forces, the miners' dissatisfaction with their working conditions, and inadequate Government planning.

If the war continues for several years, American mining industries may also experience a general decline in productivity. The record thus far has been creditable. Maintenance of output per man-hour at or near recent levels would compensate to some extent for the difficulty of expanding the work force and would help sustain production at peak levels.

⁵ Computed from data in various issues of *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich*; *Vierteljahreshefte zur Statistik des Deutschen Reichs*; *Statistical Yearbook of the League of Nations*; and *International Labor Office, Year-Book of Labor Statistics*.

⁶ *Oriental Economist* (Tokyo), English edition, various issues.

⁷ *The Economist* (London), various issues.

Recent Productivity Changes in Copper Mining¹

Summary

THOUGH copper is one of the most strategic of war materials, fewer than 35,000 wage earners in the United States are engaged in the mining and milling of the ore. It is hardly possible to produce as much of this metal as can advantageously be used in manufacturing the weapons of war for the United Nations. During the past few years, great efforts have been made to expand output, and production has risen to unprecedented levels. The chief obstacle which lies in the path of further expansion is not the limited natural supply of the ore but the shortage of manpower. To alleviate this shortage, the Government has been obliged to take drastic measures, including the furloughing of miners from the Army.

Despite the many wartime problems besetting the copper-mining industry, output was higher in 1942 than ever before, exceeding slightly the output of the previous peak year, 1916. It is also noteworthy that more copper was produced in 1942 than in 1929, with only about 60 percent as many workers. It is unlikely, however, that the high productivity levels of recent years will be maintained. A decline in the near future is probable, as the quality of ore mined deteriorates further and as manpower difficulties multiply. In that event, further increases in copper output could not be achieved without substantial increases in the number of workers in the mines.

Effect of the War on Copper Mining

The total supply of copper in 1942—from domestic ores, imports, and salvage—has been estimated at more than 2,500,000 tons.² This record total will be applied almost entirely to the production of war goods; less than 1 percent will be used for civilian purposes. Large quantities will be used in aircraft, ships, tanks, and other military vehicles, and electrical manufactures for war purposes. A large amount will also be used for ammunition shell cases, though steel is being substituted to some extent.

Expansion of facilities for mining and refining copper, in some instances with Government aid, has helped to meet our tremendous war needs. One of the most notable developments was the bringing into production of a large open-cut mine at Morenci, Ariz., early in 1942. Quotas have been assigned to the various mining properties, and a premium (currently 5 cents per pound of recoverable copper above the ceiling price of 12 cents) is paid by the Metals Reserve Corporation for production in excess of the quota. Import-price regulations have been liberalized, and the copper-salvage program has been intensified.

The production program has been endangered by the drain of workers to the armed forces and to higher-wage industries. Between

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Productivity and Technological Development by Maynard C. Heins and Kenneth A. Middleton. For description of conditions in the mining industries in general, see article on p. 256 of this issue.

² Engineering and Mining Journal (New York), February 1943 (p. 64).

March and September 1942, employment was reduced by 3,100, or 9 percent. In the latter month, the War Manpower Commission issued a "freeze" order applying to all nonferrous-metal mining in 12 western States; a certificate of separation had to be obtained from the U. S. Employment Service before a worker could accept employment elsewhere. It has not been possible to enforce this regulation rigorously. In October 1942, the War Production Board ordered the shutdown of all but the very small gold mines or those producing essential war metals as byproducts. Temporary permits have since been granted for reopening some gold mines on a restricted basis.

On October 16, 1942, the War Labor Board granted increases in wages of \$1 per day to more than 10,000 nonferrous-metal workers; other increases have since been awarded to employees of many mining and smelting establishments. In the emergency, the Selective Service System has made it easier for copper miners to obtain deferment. Toward the end of 1942, more than 4,000 miners were furloughed by the Army, for work in nonferrous-metal mines. By December, employment was 3,200 above the October level. Although employment is now somewhat higher than it has been in the past few years, the situation is still critical. On the one hand, the military needs for copper are insatiable; on the other, there are increasing difficulties in keeping the labor force intact, and there is a tendency for the grade of accessible ore to decline.

Productivity and the Mining Process

In view of the limited size of the labor force and the difficulty of maintaining it, the course of productivity becomes significant as an indicator of the effectiveness with which available labor has been utilized. In the interest of obtaining the greatest possible production in the short run, it is possible to vary the proportion of labor allocated to the blocking out of additional ore bodies for mining operations. Among the other factors which determine the level of productivity at any time are the grade of ore, the proportion of output contributed by mines and mining methods of different efficiency, the experience of the work force, and the state of technology. Before discussion of the changes in productivity in recent years and the influence of these factors, the copper-mining process will be described briefly.

Copper mining has in recent years been almost entirely confined to 6 States, which, in order of importance, are Arizona, Utah, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, and Michigan. Together, these States accounted for nearly 98 percent of all the copper mined in 1942. The remainder came from widely scattered States—California, Washington, Idaho, Colorado, Tennessee, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania.

Open-cut mining, negligible at the turn of the century, accounted for more than half of all recoverable copper in 1942. Developments in ore-dressing technique made it profitable to work the vast western deposits of low-metallic-content porphyry ores, which are close enough to the surface to permit excavation by the open-cut method. Despite the inferior metallic content of these ores, the use of mass-production methods and high-capacity machinery makes possible about twice as large an output of recoverable copper per man-hour in the open-cut mines as is obtained in underground mines.

Underground mining is practiced in all producing States. Shafts or adits³ are driven from the surface to the ore body, and the ore is removed by tramping or hoisting to the surface. Several methods are employed in mining the ore, including the following: Open-stope mining, where little support or filling is used; square-set mining, which requires heavy timbering and filling; and block-caving, in which large bodies of ore are completely removed and the covering material settles in its place. Mining operations in each case consist in opening passageways to the ore, blasting, and removal of the ore from the mine. Output of ore and output of recoverable copper per man-hour vary widely from mine to mine, depending upon the method of mining, the extent of mechanization, the quality of ore, and other factors.

In underground mines, blocks and veins of ore must be prepared for removal by development work. Where such work has been done sufficiently in advance of mining operations, production and productivity may be increased for a time by concentrating on mining operations proper and neglecting further development, as was done, for example, in block-caving mines in the summer of 1942. This expedient can be only temporary, of course, as a stage will be reached when labor must be reallocated to development, with a consequent decline of ore output and current productivity. A corresponding situation prevails in open-cut mines, where the proportion of labor devoted to advance stripping of overburden may be similarly varied in the short run.

Trend of Productivity

The output of recoverable copper per wage earner in recent years has been very high as compared with the level prevailing during the first World War. The 1942 record output of recoverable copper was achieved with fewer than half the number of employees required to produce the previous maximum, in 1916.

In the accompanying table, indexes of production, employment, and productivity are presented for each of the years 1935 to 1942, on the base 1939=100. The employment and man-hour indexes refer to wage earners in copper mines and mills. Two indexes of production are presented, one for the quantity of copper ore worked (including tailings and precipitates), and the other for the quantity of recoverable copper.⁴ All but a minor part of the copper produced in the United States is derived from "copper ores," which "include not only those that contain 2.5 percent or more copper but also those that contain less than this percentage if they are valuable chiefly for copper."⁵ From the standpoint of ultimate use, of course, output in terms of recoverable copper is more significant than in terms of ore, but the measures based on ore production are also of interest because they exclude the effect of changes in the grade of ore mined.

³ An "adit" is a horizontal or nearly horizontal passage; a "shaft" is vertical or almost vertical.

⁴ The output figures include a small amount of ore and recoverable metal obtained in other than copper mines and are therefore not precisely comparable with the employment data. The discrepancy is practically negligible.

⁵ The definition of copper ore employed by the United States Bureau of Mines (Minerals Yearbook, Review of 1940, p. 93).

Productivity and Other Indexes for the Copper-Mining Industry, 1935-42¹

Year	Indexes (1939=100)									
	Recoverable copper							Copper ore		
	Pro- duction of re- cover- able copper	Em- ploy- ment	Man- hours	Output per—		Pay rolls	Unit labor cost	Pro- duction of ore	Output per—	
				Wage earner	Man- hour				Wage earner	Man- hour
1935.....	51.7		53.0		97.5			34.6		65.3
1936.....	84.3		82.9		110.2			69.7		84.1
1937.....	116.1		123.5		101.0			111.4		90.2
1938.....	76.5		82.3		80.2			68.4		83.1
1939.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1940.....	120.8	116.5	115.9	103.7	104.2	122.6	101.5	125.4	107.6	108.2
1941.....	131.8	130.2	131.4	101.2	100.3	150.4	114.1	142.0	109.1	108.1
1942 ²	147.9	134.8	145.3	109.7	101.8	191.1	129.2	172.0	127.6	118.4

¹ The indexes of production and the index of man-hours prior to 1939 are based on Bureau of Mines data. The employment and pay-rolls index and the extension of the man-hours index are based on Bureau of Labor Statistics figures.

² The 1942 indexes of production, productivity, and unit labor cost are preliminary.

Output of recoverable copper per man-hour fluctuated widely between 1935 and 1939, but the changes since the latter year have not been decisive. The lowest point was reached in 1938, which was also the year of lowest production for the period. The highest point attained since then was in 1940, when the index reached 104.2; although this was below the figure for 1936, it was 75 percent above the 1929 level. In 1941 and 1942, as production continued to expand, productivity in terms of recoverable copper was slightly below the 1940 level. Productivity as measured by ore extracted per man-hour, on the other hand, increased steadily over the entire period, except for minor setbacks in 1938 and 1941, and was higher in 1942 than in any preceding year. The differences in movement between productivity in terms of ore and productivity in terms of recoverable metal reflect the change from extraction of relatively rich ores in 1935 and 1936 to mining of leaner ores in recent years. Output per wage earner, according to either measure, increased much more between 1941 and 1942 than did output per man-hour, as a result of longer working hours and steadier operation in the latter year.

In view of the decline in average grade of ore mined and the advance in wage and price levels, it is not surprising to find that the labor cost of a pound of recoverable copper rose by about 29 percent between 1939 and 1942. The increase in labor cost per ton of ore, however, was less than 9 percent, for the rise in productivity in terms of ore was much greater than the rise in terms of recoverable copper.

Factors Affecting Productivity

As already indicated, differences in the behavior of the two productivity measures depend upon the proportion of recoverable copper in the ore mined. The yield of recoverable metal in all ore mined tends to rise in years of low total production because operations in the open-cut mines, which contain lower-grade ores, are curtailed more than in the underground mines, and because selective mining of the richer ore deposits is practiced in the latter. In times like the present, on

the other hand, when pressure is exerted for maximum output of copper, the lower-grade ores are worked, and open-cut operations are expanded. In addition, the premium-price plan tends to encourage the working of ore of lower metallic content and of tailings not previously profitable to exploit. As a result, there has been a decline in the percentage of recoverable copper in total ore and tailings to 1.14 by weight in 1941 as compared with 1.44 in 1938 and 1.43 in 1939. In any case, there is also a long-run tendency for copper content to decline on account of the near-exhaustion of the richer veins and deposits and the improvements in extractive and ore-dressing techniques, permitting lower-content ores to be worked profitably at a given price for copper.

Changes in the proportion of output contributed by each mining method affect industry-wide productivity, not only because of differences in the average metallic content of the ore mined, but also because of differences in the respective efficiencies of the various methods. As has already been noted, productivity in terms of ore and recoverable copper is much higher in the open-cut mines than in the underground mines. Consequently, in slack years, when the proportion of production coming from the open-cut mines is usually reduced, productivity for the industry as a whole tends to fall. This factor is in large part responsible for the drop that occurred in 1938. In such years, the greater restriction of production is made in the open-cut mines. When a mine of this type is shut down, it is practicable to remove much of the heavy equipment; less labor is required for maintenance, and the mine itself is not likely to deteriorate so rapidly or so seriously as a closed underground mine. Over a period of years, however, the proportion of total ore and copper contributed by the open-cut mines has increased, and this fact is to some extent responsible for the long-run increase in productivity for the industry. Among underground methods, the highly productive block-caving method has also increased in relative importance during the past 10 or 15 years.

Technological change is another factor which has influenced the course of productivity, particularly in terms of ore. Technical progress since 1935 has taken the form of wider diffusion of improved methods already in use at the beginning of the period. There have been few, if any, fundamental new developments.

In open-cut mines, the years following 1935 saw the virtual completion of the shift from steam-powered, rail-mounted shovels for loading ore and waste, to shovels powered by electricity and mounted on caterpillar treads. Buckets having capacities of 4 to 5 cubic yards became standard for ore-loading shovels, and small shovels of $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ cubic yards capacity were introduced for clean-up and odd jobs about the mine. The trend toward larger transportation equipment in open-cut operations continued. Locomotives used in the new Morenci mine in Arizona weigh 125 tons,⁶ whereas the heaviest locomotives in use in 1935 were of 80 to 90 tons.⁷

It may be pertinent to mention here some other technical features of the Morenci mine, because they typify the most up-to-date methods employed in the open-cut mining of copper. At this mine, which went into operation early in 1942, Diesel-electric locomotives are used for stripping operations, and trolley-battery locomotives for

⁶ Data for the Morenci mine are from *Mining and Metallurgy* (New York), May 1942 (pp. 250-261).

⁷ U. S. Bureau of Mines, *Bulletin 405: Copper Mining in North America*, Washington, 1938 (pp. 137-40).

hauling ore to the mill. Electrification is not carried to the benches where the ore is mined; the ore-hauling locomotives are operated on storage-battery power when not on the main hauling lines. Greater flexibility can thus be obtained than if cable reels or overhead trolleys were extended to the point of mining operations. Cars used for stripping ore have been standardized at a capacity of 30 cubic yards and cars for hauling ore to the mill at 40 cubic yards. In preparing the Morenci mine for operation, end-dump trucks of 22.5 cubic yards capacity were used to move some 30,000,000 tons of material. These trucks were first powered by gasoline engines, which later were replaced by Diesel engines. A few trucks were successfully operated on butane gas. The use of 9-inch electric churn drills at the Morenci and other mines for drilling primary holes for blasting the ore exemplifies a shift since 1935 away from steam- and air-hammer drills. The large electric-churn drills have the advantages of greater speed, elimination of chambering,⁸ and lower operating cost.

In underground copper mines, developments in drilling equipment include the application of the calyx or shot drill to the driving of ventilation or hoisting shafts. The cutting is accomplished by sharp edges of chilled steel shot, crushed against the rock by a steel cylinder bit. In underground drilling, the piston drill with the reciprocating bit has been practically replaced by the air-hammer drill. Use of detachable drill bits has made possible the employment of harder steels and has speeded up the sharpening process. In the underground mines, more power loading equipment has been introduced. Mechanical loaders were placed in service in one Arizona mine at a deep level where hand loading would be impossible because of the heat;⁹ in other applications they have made larger drifts and faster drilling equipment feasible.¹⁰ The use of conveyor belts is a recent development in the underground transportation of ore, and shaker-conveyors in increasing number have been placed in service. Greater use has been made of scrapers for moving ore from the face to chutes or to mine cars. The tendency to increase the capacity of locomotives and cars has persisted. As mines have become deeper, forced ventilation and, in recent years, air conditioning have been introduced.¹¹

Progress in copper metallurgy has been made simultaneously with progress in the techniques of mining copper ore. As a consequence, smelting and refining plants have been enabled to handle the expanded ore output, and it has become commercially feasible to work ores so low in metallic content that they would have been ignored a decade or so ago. Improvements have been made at a number of copper milling, smelting, and refining plants since the outbreak of war to increase their effective capacity and to permit the recovery of more copper from given grades of ore. For example, additional dust collectors have been installed to recover metal from converter gases.

⁸ Chambering is the enlargement of drill holes by the use of light charges of explosives to provide room for the main charge.

⁹ Mining Congress Journal (Washington), March 1939 (pp. 13-15): Mucking Machines at the Magma Mine, by Darrell Gardner.

¹⁰ U. S. Bureau of Mines, Bulletin 423: Mechanical Shoveling in Underground Metal Mines, by M. Mosier and J. H. Steinmesch, Washington, 1940 (p. 57).

¹¹ The first underground-mine refrigerating plant in the United States was installed in a copper mine in 1937. See Ventilation and Air-Conditioning of the Magma Mine, by C. B. Forester, in Transactions of the American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers, Inc., vol. 141; Metal Mining, 1940, p. 259. See also Technical Paper 1348: Progress in Air-Conditioning for the Ventilation of the Butte Mines, by A. S. Richardson, A. I. M. M. E., Inc., July 1941.

The industry has had to contend with greatly increased labor turnover and absenteeism since the war began, and in the summer of 1942 it suffered a substantial loss of personnel. These factors would of themselves tend to reduce productivity and production; but some monthly data for underground and open-cut mines show that output of ore, total and per man-hour, increased in each division with no important interruptions during the first three quarters of 1942. Part of the explanation may be that the expedient of temporarily neglecting development work was adopted by several underground mines. It is also likely that the proportion of labor devoted to the advance stripping of overburden was reduced in open-cut mines, although employment in these mines declined by a smaller percentage than in the underground properties. At the end of 1942 employment in the copper mines recovered sharply as a result of Government action, particularly the furloughing of miners from the Army, and there are indications that development work was again pushed.

Outlook for the Industry

For the duration of the war, the copper-mining industry will continue to strain for maximum output, and the manpower problem will persist in the form of competition with other essential industries for available labor. No great increases in production of recoverable copper can be anticipated. Some expansion of output may be expected from new mines and from the reopening of abandoned workings. Some increase in production of existing mines may also be possible if additional labor can be obtained, but most of these mines are near their potential maximum rates of output under current methods. Early in July, Donald M. Nelson, Chairman of the War Production Board, reported that, for the rest of the year, it would be necessary to draw from accumulated supplies of copper to meet production schedules, since current output was insufficient. Later in the same month, Under Secretary of War Robert P. Patterson announced that about 4,500 more miners will be furloughed from the Army for work in copper, zinc, and molybdenum mines. He indicated that only "mines of highest productivity located in areas of critical labor shortage" will be permitted to employ the men released.

Productivity, in terms of recoverable metal, may decline as the war progresses. An important factor will be the difficulty of maintaining an experienced work force. Other factors are the probable continued decline in the grade of ore mined and the increasingly unfavorable conditions under which additional output will be obtained from reconditioned mines. Restriction of development work can be of but little value in increasing the output of the limited labor force. The wisdom of postponing development is dependent upon estimates of the war's length.

Any opinions as to the post-war situation in copper mining are necessarily tentative, but it seems clear that the domestic industry will have to adjust to smaller peacetime demands, to more extensive competition with foreign mines, and to competition in the domestic market with materials developed under the stress of wartime conditions as substitutes for copper in some applications.

Social Security

Family Allowances in Various Countries¹

IN PRACTICALLY all industrialized countries serious consideration has been given for a number of years to the problem of adequately providing for large families in the case of wage earners and lower-salaried employees. It is now generally agreed that the remuneration of such workers should be sufficient to provide for the maintenance of a family at a minimum standard of health and decency. However, an income which will provide such a standard for a married man with a small family may well be insufficient in the case of a large number of dependents.

It is only in recent years that there has been any widespread discussion of this problem in the United States, but in various foreign countries concrete proposals for meeting it have been made in responsible quarters and in a considerable number such proposals have been put into practice.

In France and Belgium, for instance, long before the present war there was in effect an extensive system of "family allowances" by which extra payments to wage earners with dependents were made from a "pool" supported by the employers in a particular group. In New Zealand and Australia a different approach was taken, payments to families with more than a specified number of children being made directly by the State. This system is referred to as one of "child endowment." Moreover, in the case of many foreign countries, the salaries of civil servants were increased in the case of larger families. The same principle is also recognized in many social-insurance schemes, where the benefits are adjusted to the number of dependents.

Certain other factors have entered the situation. One is the desire of various countries, both as a military and as an industrial measure, to encourage an increase in population, or at least a maintenance of the present population. Another factor is the fear that in a post-war devastated world, wages and living levels may be forced down; under such conditions a system of family allowances or child endowment may permit a more equitable distribution of a limited national income.

Experiments with family-allowances schemes, exclusive of those for mobilized men, have been made in at least 35 countries, including practically all the countries of Europe, Australia, New Zealand, 4 of the South American countries, and the United States. The schemes vary greatly in importance, some being simple local ventures, as in this country; others compulsory nation-wide systems. Their common function, however, is the granting of allowances—usually in cash—to families to supplement their regular income from wages, salaries, or

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Editorial and Research Division by Mary T. Waggaman

other sources, to enable breadwinners to meet more adequately expenses incurred in the maintenance of dependents. Despite the difficulty of holding family allowances within the boundary lines of definition, it would seem that, in general, such allocations are considered a right or privilege and not a dole.

In this article the attempt is made to give a brief review of the latest available information on family allowances other than those for armed forces, with such references to earlier history as are necessary to give a reasonably clear picture of the existing situation.

Types of Family-Allowance Systems

Family-allowance schemes are of 3 major types:

- (1) Those confined to public services, including the armed forces.
- (2) Those financed by private industry; jointly by the State and private industry; or by the State, private industry, and the workers. These may be either voluntary or compulsory.
- (3) Those involving direct family endowment by the State.

Methods of Paying Family Allowances

In provisions for allocations for family responsibilities, the word "children" is frequently interpreted to mean not only legitimate children but also legitimized and illegitimate, adopted and foster children, and stepchildren. Wives also may be included in benefits, and in some instances even common-law wives and divorced wives. The number of children for whom benefits may be paid varies as to their ages for eligibility. Even children in the higher age groups are included under specified circumstances. In some instances only workers in the lower income brackets are covered, but other schemes extend these benefits to all with the family responsibilities, regardless of income level.

Payment may be made on an hourly, daily, weekly, monthly or annual basis. The grant may be a percentage of salary or may take the form of a higher wage. In some cases the allowance has no connection with the wage or salary.

Family-Allowance Funds

The cost of benefits naturally varies considerably from company to company and group to group, according to the relative number of dependents for whom grants must be made. To meet this situation "compensation funds" have been created in some countries, notably Belgium and France. These funds, operating over a considerably wider field than that presented by the industrial firm, serve to spread the risk and to equalize the cost of benefits among the employers.

The membership of these funds may include all employers in the area, or may be confined to specified industries or trades. The employers affiliate with the appropriate fund, making their contributions to it. Such contributions are calculated in various ways—on the basis of number of days worked, total number of workers employed, total wage bill, etc. The contributions of some agricultural funds have been

based on the amount of ground under cultivation by affiliated members. In some cases employers with large numbers of young workers without dependents pay smaller contributions.

The advantage of the compensation funds is that by spreading the cost over a larger group of employers, they prevent the penalizing of those who have hired workers with large numbers of dependents, and thus also forestall the discrimination against such workers that would result if an individual employer had to be responsible personally for the payments of benefits to his force.

Developments, 1939-43

During the period 1939-43 there were developments of more or less importance in the family-allowance field in at least 24 countries.

The Australian Child Endowment Act, assented to April 7, 1941, provides that 5s. per week be paid for each child under 16 years of age in excess of 1 child in each family, regardless of the income of the parents.

The family-allowance provisions in the New Zealand Security Act were liberalized by 1941 and 1942 legislation.

In Great Britain the growing interest in child endowment has been manifested by increasing discussions on the subject and numerous recommendations for the inauguration of such endowment from British churchmen, members of Parliament, industrialists, and other influential groups. In March 1942, after years of opposition to family allowances, the British Trades Union Congress, through its general council, reversed its attitude and agreed with the Labor Party on the need for a national scheme of child endowment which should be a charge on the State. In June 1942, the British Chancellor of the Exchequer issued a memorandum, published as a "white paper," estimating the cost of a national system of child endowment under different types of schemes. Late in the same year the British economist, Sir William Beveridge, recommended children's allowances in his report on social security.

A Canadian report, proposing children's allowances for the Dominion of Canada, was also submitted in March 1943 to the Canadian House of Commons Committee on Social Security.

In the United States, the publication by the National Education Association, in the latter part of 1941, of the results of an examination of public-school salary schedules disclosed provisions for financial supplements for family responsibilities for teachers in public-school systems in 75 cities and towns.

The Federal Social Security Board, after referring to the existing scheme of Federal grants to States under the Social Security Act for dependent children, makes the following statement in its seventh annual report (1942):

Consideration should be given also to extending the scope of the program by including children whose need is due to causes other than those now specified, i. e., the parent's death, incapacity or absence from home. It has been suggested, for example, that Federal matching grants should be available for approved State plans which furnish aid to any child whose family resources are insufficient to insure healthful growth and development.

In Latin America several acts have been passed and legislative proposals made concerning family allowances, since the adoption of a

resolution on such allowances at the Eighth International Conference of American States held at Lima, Peru, toward the close of 1938.

In Hungary, an act establishing a new family-allowance system became operative on January 1, 1939, covering manual workers in the larger mining, industrial, and commercial enterprises.

Under the nation-wide family allowance system instituted in Spain in 1938, the amounts of allowances were doubled in 1939.

On July 29, 1939, the Family Code, which provided for unifying into one general system the French family-allowance schemes, was adopted in the form of a decree, the provisions of which were to become effective by degrees in 1940. The French Labor Charter promulgated October 4, 1941, gave family allowances a prominent place in the sections dealing with wage determination.

The act providing for a general family-allowance scheme in the Netherlands, to be financed entirely by employers, was promulgated December 23, 1939. No data are available as to the fate of the system since the Nazi invasion.

By an act of August 6, 1940, the Italian Government announced the discontinuance of its contribution to the family-allowance system and gave legal confirmation to the previous abrogation of the workers' obligation to contribute.

In 1942, family-allowance laws were enacted in both Bulgaria and Portugal.

Family Allowances in Private Employment

In the field of family allowances in private industry the most important countries are Belgium, France, and Italy. In the first two of these the progress of the family-allowance movement has been notable. Initiated by private employers, the systems in both countries have since been made compulsory and nation-wide. A signal recent development is the inclusion in these systems of employers and independent workers.

The trend in the French movement has been toward more and more Governmental management and financing. The family-allowance system was made general in Italy by a decree of June 17, 1937, which effected very important changes in the internal organization of the previous restricted scheme; later measures expanded the coverage of the system, raised the amount of the allowances, and placed the cost of these benefits wholly upon the employer.

SCOPE OF FAMILY-ALLOWANCE PLANS

Belgium.—As early as 1915 family allowances were being paid in the coal-mining industry in Belgium.

A law making family allowances compulsory in private industry in that country was passed August 4, 1930. An act of June 10, 1937, extending the scope of family allowances to the children of employers and independent workers, became effective by degrees from January 1, 1938. At least 2 years after the German invasion these grants were still being paid.

Bulgaria.—A family-allowance scheme was established in Bulgaria under regulations issued by the Council of Ministers on August 4, 1942.

The system was made retroactive from the first of the preceding month. All workers of Bulgaria, who are covered by social insurance and are employed in private industry, are included in the scheme.

France.—It was not until 1932 that a law was enacted in France making the payment of family allowances compulsory for all employers, although allowances had been granted voluntarily and extensively by private employers years before, and by certain mine operators even before the first World War. Two decrees in 1938 so extended the system of family allowances in agriculture as to benefit practically all the rural population.

The numerous schemes for family allowances established in France under the act of 1932 varied appreciably in form and advantages. This was also true of arrangements for these grants for officials and employees of the Government, the personnel of local communities, and public services under State, departmental, communal and other concessions.

These schemes were absorbed and unified in a new nation-wide system by a decree of the President of the French Republic, July 29, 1939. This so-called "Family Code" provided family allowances for the heads of families throughout the country not only in the wage-earning and salaried groups but also for employers and independent workers. The essential purpose of the code was "to provide legislative foundation for a social reform, the application of which, it is hoped, may bring about an increase in the country's birth rate, and in general ameliorate the material well-being of French family units to such an extent as to make the raising of large families possible."

As already stated, family allowances were provided for in the French Labor Charter that was promulgated October 4, 1941. Whether and in what way the established family-allowance system has been affected by the Charter is not known.

Great Britain.—It has long been a practice of the Methodist, Presbyterian, and Baptist churches in England to grant family allowances to their ministers, and limited family-allowance schemes are in operation in some of the dioceses of the English Established Church. The London School of Economics has for many years been paying such benefits to its staff.

According to reports published in 1940, 1941, and 1942, there are at least 35 industrial establishments paying family allowances in Great Britain. Two or more of these adopted the practice in 1917, but the great majority of the schemes were started in the period 1938-42.

Germany.—In Germany during the past few years there has been a revival of interest in the subject of family allowances. In 1941, allowances paid by private enterprises were provided for in certain collective agreements. Also, supplements for children were still being granted by insurance funds for medical, dental, and pharmaceutical care.

Hungary.—A new family-allowance scheme was instituted in Hungary under an act promulgated on December 28, 1938, which became operative January 1, 1939.

The act is applicable to all mining, industrial, and commercial enterprises which employ on an average over 20 workers. Only manual workers are covered.

Italy.—In Italy a royal decree-law of August 21, 1936, made the family-allowance system obligatory for all industrial workers with dependent children, regardless of the number of hours worked per

week. Under this law collective contracts have also been made in other branches of business (as in finance and commerce) which are extending the coverage of the system. Under the act of June 17, 1937, and the decree of July 21, 1937, the family-allowance system was still further extended, the payment of family allowances being made compulsory as to wage-earner heads of families, regardless of age, sex, or nationality.

Recent legal regulations provide that family allowances in agriculture shall be restricted to persons registered on the list of agricultural workers.

Latvia.—The Latvian law instituting family allowances in agriculture was amended on May 4, 1939, to expand the coverage of the system. A decree of the Ministry of Social Welfare, of December 30, 1939, provided for additional subsidies for rural workers with dependents.

Netherlands.—Family allowances were quite common in the Netherlands even before December 23, 1939, when the act providing for a compulsory family-allowance scheme covering the wage earners on the pay rolls of all employers was promulgated.

Portugal.—A family-allowance scheme was introduced by the Portuguese Government by a legislative decree of August 13, 1942, in accordance with the principles set forth in Articles 11 and 15 of the constitution of March 9, 1933. The decree is applicable to family wage earners of Portuguese nationality working for an employer in industry, commerce, the liberal professions, or corporative bodies or organizations for economic coordination, provided such wage earners are domiciled in Portugal. Brazilian and Spanish workers, and nationals of other countries which grant reciprocal treatment to Portuguese wage earners, are also covered.

Spain.—In 1938 a law was enacted in Spain instituting a compulsory centralized system of family allowances for wage and salaried workers in private employment.

Application to agriculture of the compulsory family-allowance system provided for in Spain under the act of July 18, 1938, and a decree of October 20, 1938, was so difficult that it became necessary to issue special regulations. These were included in an act of September 1, 1939, in regulations issued the following month, and in an order of January 17, 1940.

South America.—An Argentine act of September 4, 1940, provides that banks shall pay family allowances. Among other private establishments and organizations listed as making these grants in that country in 1942 were Argentine Electric Co., Flandria Cotton Mill Co., Michelin Tire Co., Noel & Co. Candy Manufacturers; Printing Office of Louis Gotelli, Argentine Model School, Central Board of Catholic Action of Argentina, Federation of Catholic Workers' Clubs, and Workers' Club of Rosario.

In Chile, in accordance with an act of February 5, 1937, and later decrees, and an amending act of September 12, 1941, salaried employees of private establishments and semiofficial institutions have been granted family allowances.

United States.—Family-allowance schemes in private employment in the United States at present are so few in number as to be negligible. The Salvation Army makes such grants to its officers. The principles

of the basic wage and dependency allotments have been used as a guide in certain higher educational institutions in fixing salaries and determining increases in pay.

Other countries.—In view of the increase in the cost of living the institution of a system of family allowances for low-paid workers was decided upon by the Japanese Cabinet on February 16, 1940. Manual workers, salaried employees, and public and municipal officials were included in the scheme. The purpose of the measure was to cushion the effects of the imperial orders of October 16, 1939, concerning the regulation of wages. On February 16, 1940, the Minister of Social Welfare sent a circular to the prefects and chiefs of the mines-inspection offices, which defined the methods of application of the new plan.

Prior to May 1937 a large number of factories in Japan had raised their wage rates, because of the upward trend in prices, and labor organizations had started a campaign for pay increases. In this connection several companies in the textile industry introduced a new system of family allowances.

Shortly before the outbreak of the present war, family allowances were being paid in private industry to some extent in Czechoslovakia, Estonia, Greece, Luxemburg, the Principality of Monaco, Poland, and Yugoslavia.

DEPENDENT BENEFICIARIES AND ALLOWANCE RATES

Provisions concerning dependents show extreme variation in regard to the number and relationship of the beneficiaries, and allowance rates. Among the more common regulations were the restriction of the allowances to children below the 14-16 age group, unless they were continuing their education or training, and the granting of allowances for an indefinite period to children physically or mentally incapable of earning their living.

Belgium.—In Belgium in 1938 allowances were being paid for children up to 18 years of age, except in the case of children going to work after reaching 14 years of age. Children mentally or physically defective were eligible for allowances indefinitely. The minimum allowances as reported in April 1938, ranged from 20.64 francs per month for the first child to 124.00 francs per month for the fifth and each subsequent child.

Bulgaria.—The dependent children of mothers, fathers, sisters or brothers in Bulgaria are granted allowances up to 21 years of age, provided these children are not at work. The monthly allowance rate is 100 leva for the first child and 200 leva for the other children.

France.—Instead of the previous allowance for the first child, the Family Code provided that a sum ranging from 2,000 to 3,000 francs was to be paid for a first-born legitimate child under specified conditions.

All workers, including employers, in agriculture, industry, commerce, and the professions, with two or more children, were declared eligible for family allowances for children under 14 years of age (or under 17 years of age if they were continuing their education or were apprenticed).

It was provided that the rate of the allocation for the second child should be at least 10 percent of the average salary common to the locality in which the allocatee resided, and 20 percent for the third and each subsequent child. Moreover, an additional allocation of 10 percent was to be granted as an assistance to the mother, when the family depended upon a single income which was not paid during holidays or for other reasons.

A decree of December 16, 1939, laid down the manner in which the Family Code was to be applied under war conditions.

Great Britain.—The London School of Economics, according to a report published in 1940, was paying £30 per annum for each child under 13 years of age and £60 per annum for each child between 13 and 23 years of age receiving a full-time education. The Association of University Teachers approved the extension of this experiment, but without practical results.

In the industrial establishments which have adopted family-allowance schemes, the weekly allowance per child ranges from 1s. to as high as 5s. The wage limit for receiving allowances also varies, for example, being only £5 per week in the establishment of N. Kilvert & Sons, Ltd., and as much as £400 per annum for the staff of Pilkington Brothers, Ltd. Cadbury Brothers, Ltd., grants a weekly supplement of 5s. for each child after the second, regardless of the father's salary. J. Bibby & Sons, Ltd., pays allowances when the total income going into the home is below a certain base which varies, however, with the number of children under 16 years of age in the family. Brittain, Ltd., pays £10 a year for a child until it leaves school, for members of the staff whose income is not over £400 per annum.

Hungary.—Legitimate, adopted, or recognized illegitimate children, under 14 years of age, dependent on a manual worker, are eligible for family allowances. The rate of allowance is set at 5 pengös per month, and the grants are paid through equalization funds.

At the close of 1939, an allowance of from 70 to 80 pengös was granted to each large family having children under 12 years of age among the agricultural workers of the County of Hejer employed by the members of the National Union of Agricultural Employers.

Italy.—In 1940, increases were granted in the family-allowance rates for the dependent children of workers in industry, commerce, and agriculture. As established in that year the allowances for the first child ranged from 0.45 lira per day for agricultural wage earners to 100.00 lire for employees in banks; for the fourth and subsequent children the allowances ranged from 0.90 lira per day to 135.00 lire per month in the same classifications. Allowances were also provided for the wives and parents of these workers and for the wives and parents of ship's officers and seamen.

Latvia.—An amendment of May 9, 1939, to the law instituting family allowances in agriculture in Latvia extended the age limit for children's allowances up to 11 years. The previous law specified 10 years as the age limit and 5 children as the maximum number to receive allowances.

Netherlands.—The Netherlands act of December 23, 1939, made every wage earner employed by a private enterprise or by a community eligible for a family allowance for each child under 15 years of age,

beginning with the third. The allowance varied according to the wage, the minimum being 10 cents and the maximum being 25 cents per day.

Portugal.—In 1942 the breadwinners' dependents included those whose individual means were not sufficient to maintain them and who relied for their support, clothing, and education on the family breadwinner. The amount of the allowance is computed on the number of days worked, in accordance with the rates published in a schedule to the decree.

Spain.—More substantial family allowances, together with marriage loans and prizes, were provided for by a Spanish decree of February 22, 1941. The new family-allowance rates, which were 100 percent above those provided for in the compulsory family-allowance act of July 18, 1938, ranged from 30 pesetas per month for 2 children to 290 pesetas per month for 12 children.

South America.—An act of September 4, 1940, provided that the employees in Argentine banks must be paid an allowance of 5 pesos per month for each dependent child under 16 years of age. The Central Bank of the Republic of Argentina has been paying family allowances of 10 pesos per month per child under 15 years of age to all staff members earning salaries up to 350 pesos per month.

A law of September 12, 1941 (No. 7064), of Chile amended the law of February 5, 1937 (No. 6020), which provided for family allowances for salaried employees in private establishments and semiofficial institutions. These amendments included certain regulations relative to fixing the amounts of family allowances.

According to the Foreign Commerce Weekly of February 6, 1943 (U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce), the dependents of workers jointly contributing with employers to a Public Assistance Fund established by the Chilean Government were receiving 50 pesos for each child under 16 years of age or dependent relative.

Japan.—Under regulations issued in 1940, by the Japanese Government, all workers whose earnings per month were not over 70 yen and who had one or more dependent children under 14 years of age were to be eligible for family allowances. The average monthly allowance rate was set at 2 yen per worker. Each establishment was to be permitted to determine the conditions under which the allowances were to be granted and to increase the amount according to the number of the worker's dependents.

FINANCIAL CONTRIBUTIONS AND EQUALIZATION FUNDS

The tendency in many countries in which family-allowance schemes have been established in private industry is to organize central funds from which the payments are made. This equalizes the cost for employers and prevents discrimination against workers with heavy family responsibilities, as the contributions of individual employing companies are assessed in such way as to make it a matter of indifference to them how many dependents their workers have. In England, however, the industrial establishments that have adopted family-allowance schemes make the payments directly to their workers.

In France and Belgium the equalization funds have been multiplied and elaborated. As already noted, the purpose of the French Family

Code of 1939 was to unify a highly complex system. In Italy four separate funds were replaced by a single one. The Bulgarian law of August 4, 1942, provided for one autonomous fund. Various funds were provided, however, by the 1939 family-allowance legislation in Hungary and the Portuguese decree of August 13, 1942.

Belgium.—In 1938 all employers were required to become members of a family-allowance fund. The funds are of several types, based on the period at which the members were affiliated, the character of the industry carried on, etc. A National Equalization Fund has also been established.

Belgian employers' contributions to the funds vary according to the cost-of-living index and have been increased or decreased by royal decree. In April 1938 the daily rates were 1.10 francs for each man and 0.60 franc for each woman employed. If at least 23 days are worked in the month, the employer makes a monthly lump-sum contribution which is also based on the cost-of-living index. The monthly contributions in April 1938 were at the rate of 27.50 francs for a man and 15 francs for a woman, this difference, it was explained, being due to the fact that few women were supporting families and that in practically all cases they gave up work when they acquired a family. The funds may also claim a small additional contribution for administrative expenses.

Bulgaria.—The Family Allowance Act of 1942 required private enterprises to contribute 10 percent of their wage and salary bills to an autonomous fund attached to the Directorate of Labor which administers the system.

France.—In 1940 it was compulsory for employers to become affiliated personally with the equalization fund to which their personnel was already affiliated. Independent workers were to affiliate with a special family-allowance fund or with a special section established in an ordinary equalization fund as an independent financial unit; this system has since been changed with a view to improving its operation. Under an act of November 18, 1940, provision was made for the financing of these funds.

The Family Code called for a State expenditure of 1,450,000,000 francs, to be raised by contributions from employers and the taxation of citizens according to the family responsibilities of the taxpayers.

Netherlands.—Family allowances and their administration are financed entirely by the employers. Their contributions are fixed each year for the following 12 months, on the basis of, and in proportion to, each employer's total wage bill. It is estimated that the allowances represent approximately 1 percent of the combined wages paid, or approximately 18,000,000 florins per annum.

Hungary.—Except for the expenses of administration of the central fund, which the Government meets, employers are responsible for all expenditures connected with the payment of family allowances, including the organization and administration of the various equalization funds. For the first year the contribution was 48 pengös per male worker and 32 pengös per female worker. Organization and administration costs are fixed at 5 percent of the income resulting from the assessments levied upon employers.

Eight equalization funds have been established for the various branches of mining, industry, and commerce, each fund having

country-wide jurisdiction. The central fund is under the general direction of the Ministry of Industry, and its operations are supervised by a committee on which both workers and employers have representation.

Italy.—From the financial viewpoint, the present organization of family allowances is based principally upon the creation of a single fund, which replaces the four separate funds previously existing.

By a law of August 6, 1940, the Italian Government announced the discontinuance of its contribution to the family-allowance system and gave legal confirmation to the previous abrogation of the workers' obligation to contribute. It also extended the system to employees of State administrations and public establishments insofar as they were not already receiving family aid.

Portugal.—Family-allowance funds collect the money for the system and distribute them to the allocatees. It is compulsory for every worker and every enterprise to become a member of a family-allowance fund as soon as one has been established for the occupation or industry. The finances of the funds are furnished through contributions from both the workers and the establishments concerned, payments by the National Family Allowances Fund, interest and other revenue, grants, gifts, and legacies.

The Legislative Decree of August 13, 1942, also created a National Fund attached to the National Labor and Welfare Institute to balance the receipts and expenditures of the regional funds, and to assist them in carrying out their functions.

Spain.—Under 1939 and 1940 legislation, agricultural employers in Spain must bear the entire cost of financing the allowances, their contributions being based in part on the assessed land value and in part on their wages bill. In case of land held on lease or cultivated on shares, landlords may require their leaseholders or tenants to refund the contributions paid. The amount of the allowance is based on a monthly schedule, regardless of the number of days the recipient has been employed.

Family Allowances in Public Employment

Based on information for 1937 or 1938, family allowances were being paid in the State civil service of at least 19 foreign countries—Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxemburg, the Netherlands, Norway, Rumania, Switzerland, and Yugoslavia. Furthermore, grants of this kind were being made in certain State mines in Hungary, in the public service of the municipality of Buenos Aires, Argentina, in certain communal agencies in Chile, and to the Peruvian police force.

Later reports indicate that many of these public services are still paying family allowances and that such benefits are now, or were, just preceding the war, granted more or less in public employment in Bohemia-Moravia, Bulgaria, French Equatorial Africa, Poland, and South America—in Argentina, in various public administrations; in Chile; and in Peru to teachers. As previously stated, in 1941, salary differentials for family responsibilities were reported for the school systems of 75 communities in the United States.

South America.—An order of December 23, 1937, provided that beginning with May 1, 1938, the municipality of Buenos Aires should add to the monthly remuneration of its salaried and wage-earning employees receiving up to 300 pesos per month, an allowance of 5 pesos for each child under 15 years of age wholly dependent upon the head of the family.

Family allowances were being voluntarily granted in various public administrative and official and mixed institutions in Argentina, according to the February 1943 issue of *Revista de Economía Argentina*.

Among the public administrations are those of the Provinces of Catamarca, Cordoba, and Santa Fe, and the municipalities of Leones and General Pico.

Family Endowment by the State

Although the term "family endowment" is sometimes used interchangeably for "family allowances," as used in this section it refers to a grant for family responsibilities made directly by the State, not as an emergency relief measure but as a regular cash supplement based on the fact that the budgets of larger families call for greater expenditures. The inclusion and liberalizing of the long-existing system of child endowment under the provisions of the New Zealand Social Security Act, which became effective April 1, 1939, and the Australian Commonwealth Child Endowment Act of April 1941, are conspicuous evidences of an accelerated trend towards greater economic security for the family. Both these systems are country-wide in their scope, as is also the German child-endowment system under the ordinance of December 9, 1940, which became operative January 1, 1941. The New Zealand Act fixes an income limit for benefiting families, but the Australian and German schemes disregard the matter of income.

The age limit for child beneficiaries except in specified circumstances is under 16 in the New Zealand and Australian Acts.

The Finance Act of New Zealand, effective September 1, 1941, provided that a family allowance of 4s. be payable for the first child, the rate being adjusted so that the average weekly income of the parents and children under 16 years of age, exclusive of the allowance, should not exceed £5. In 1942, in accordance with an amendment to the Social Security Act, family allowances were increased 50 per cent and the family-income limit was raised to £5, 5s.

In Australia the sum of 5s. per week is provided for all children under 16 years of age, in excess of one per family.

The German legislation provides that an allowance be granted to a family for children under 21 years of age if there are 3 or more children under that age in the family.

Under the new constitution of the United States of Brazil, large families are entitled to allowances according to the number of their dependent children. Needy parents have the right to apply to the State for assistance and protection in order to secure the maintenance and education of their children.

The Public Health Act of Turkey gives an important place to the assistance of large families—always with the objective of reducing infant mortality but with the further purpose of assisting mothers and giving needed help in homes where there are many children.

Establishment of Social Security Bureau in Haiti

A BUREAU of Social Security was established in Haiti as an independent organization, under the management of a board of six directors, by a decree-law of May 15, 1943.¹ The directors, appointed by the President of Haiti, are the Secretaries of State for Finance and for Agriculture and Labor, an official of the National Bank, the Director of the Public Health Service, and an American and a British resident.

The purposes of the new bureau are to provide for the payment of supplementary indemnities to laborers injured in the course of their work, or to members of their families, in cases specifically covered by labor legislation; to establish hospitals or homes for workers incapacitated either from age or as a result of accidents; and to establish any project of an agricultural, industrial, or social nature designed to promote the well-being of agricultural laborers, especially those who have been displaced as a result of the Governmental program for the cultivation of strategic materials for export, or of food.

Apparently the whole cost of the measure is to be borne by the workers. The decree provides that the social-insurance fund is to be financed by compulsory deductions of 1 gourde (20 cents) every 2 weeks, from the pay of all laborers engaged in agricultural enterprises of any kind which employ at least 50 workers. The contributions will be deducted by the employer and deposited in the national bank, to the credit of the Bureau for Social Security, with the exception of 10 percent which will be credited to the Fund for Public Relief established under decree laws of 1938 and 1939. The law does not affect the obligations of employers in case of industrial accidents.

¹ Report from J. C. White, United States minister, Port-au-Prince, Haiti.

Cooperation

Work of Reconstruction Cooperatives in France After First World War ¹

Summary

AFTER the end of the war of 1914-18, France faced an enormous problem in the rebuilding of the districts laid waste during the hostilities. In the historic city of Rheims, for instance, it was said that of a total of 14,000 houses before the war only 15 were left intact at its conclusion. In over 90 percent of all the communes there was some war damage and over a fifth were destroyed completely. One of the means adopted to hasten the restoration process was a new form of cooperative association, the "reconstruction cooperative." These associations acted as intermediaries between the owners of damaged or destroyed properties and the State or its various agencies, or organizations involved in the work of reconstruction. The cooperatives did not undertake actual construction or repair. They presented damage claims of their members to the Government, prepared a plan of work to be done in each case, chose from the Government panel the architects and contractors, undertook supervision of the job, attended to the financial and legal details, and were responsible for the disbursal of the damage money granted by the State.

The first reconstruction cooperative was organized in 1919. Four years later there were 2,262 cooperatives, with a total membership of 162,000 persons, federated into 35 regional unions. It was estimated that about 27 percent of all the repair work and 58 percent of all the construction work in the devastated areas was done by the reconstruction cooperatives, but ranged in some regions as high as 76 percent.

After the present war there will be a problem of reconstruction that will dwarf into insignificance that which was faced by France. The widespread bombing has laid waste not only industrial areas but residential districts all over Europe. All of these people will have to be provided with dwellings and their claims for damages will mount into a total that will overtax all governmental machinery. For that period a revival of the reconstruction cooperative may offer a partial solution. Furthermore, in most of the countries throughout Europe the people are already accustomed to the cooperative idea, having developed nation-wide networks of cooperatives for the retail distribution of food and household needs and the marketing of farm products. The introduction of reconstruction on a cooperative basis should therefore not be difficult.

The present article describes how the French reconstruction cooperatives worked and what they accomplished.

¹ Prepared by Valery J. Tereshtenko, Program Appraisal Branch, Food Distribution Administration, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Beginnings of Cooperation in Reconstruction

The idea of using cooperative enterprise as a tool for reconstruction of devastated regions in France, rebuilding and repairing material damages caused by the last war, was actually not new; an experiment of the same nature was made after the disastrous inundation in the Marne in 1910. The method brought good results and a great number of damaged buildings were restored cooperatively. The pioneers of reconstruction cooperatives (*sociétés coopératives de reconstruction*) after the war were two priests—Fathers Thouvenin and Fiel. The movement started in the Department of Meurthe-et-Moselle, where the first genuine reconstruction cooperative was organized in February 1919 (attempts along the same lines, however, had begun in 1918). By March 23, there were 17 cooperatives organized in the Department; by May 1 there were 60; and by the end of the winter of 1920 there were 200.

In the Department of Aisne the first cooperative was organized in Blérancourt, also in February of 1919. It was followed in May by a cooperative in Soissons, and by September Aisne had 73 reconstruction cooperatives.

Membership and Functions of Reconstruction Cooperatives

Any owner of property damaged or destroyed in the war was eligible for membership in a reconstruction cooperative. Although membership was voluntary, once admitted to membership, no person had the right to withdraw.²

As already noted, the reconstruction cooperatives did not carry on any actual construction or repair work. They were "middlemen" between the owners of destroyed and damaged properties (eligible, according to the laws, for governmental aid), on the one hand, and the State and various organizations (such as unions of architects or building contractors) involved in the actual work of reconstruction, on the other. The reconstruction cooperative was the representative for any claims by its members against the State; it adjudicated these claims, prepared a plan of work to be done, and then organized its execution and supervision, chose the architects, and attended to the financial and legal aspects of the work of reconstruction, etc.

Legal Organization

Many of the reconstruction associations were organized under the law of July 24, 1867, pertaining to commercial associations, as their field of operations did not fall within the scope of the laws authorizing either consumers' distributive associations or the agricultural marketing associations. Later, however, specific legal recognition of this type of cooperatives was given by the law of April 17, 1919. Additional laws and a number of ordinances were passed at later dates to regulate their activities.

² Law of August 15, 1920, art. 7, par. 2.

The law of August 15, 1920, defined the purposes of reconstruction cooperatives as follows:

The associations have for their purpose to act for their members in all transactions related to reconstruction of real estate, especially in regard to adjudicating claims; execution and supervision of and payments for repairs and reconstruction, and reinvestments of advances and payments for which provision is made in the law referred to above.

This law required that the bylaws of reconstruction cooperatives should be in harmony with those drawn up by the Government. It provided that no community could have more than one reconstruction cooperative, unless the total amount of membership claims against the State exceeded 1,000,000 francs.

Panels of architects, technicians, and building contractors were drawn up for each Department in accordance with special rules, and the cooperatives' choice was limited to those on the panel. The accounts of reconstruction cooperatives were subject to Government audit.

Finances of Cooperatives

Reconstruction cooperatives had no share capital of their own. Their funds and assets consisted of (1) payments received from members for the expenses of the organization; (2) subventions and reimbursable advances for expenses, received from the State; and (3) properties entrusted to them by the members. The legal ownership of such properties remained with the individual owners, and only their management and disposition were entrusted to the cooperatives. The latter were also responsible for the disposition of the funds received from the State against the members' claims.

The governmental authorities on reconstruction anticipated that considerable difficulties would be encountered not only in reconstruction work itself, but also in preliminary organizational work which was supposed to precede it, such as adjudicating claims, planning programs of work, securing advisory services of legal and technical experts, etc. Accordingly, the ordinance of the Ministry of Liberated Regions of April 25, 1919, ruled that Government advances not exceeding 1 percent of the total assignable payments (as determined by the law) could be made in the case of individual applicants, and not exceeding 4 percent in the case of reconstruction cooperatives. The money advanced could be used even for certain preparatory phases of construction work (for instance, erecting a warehouse for building materials) but not for the work itself. Twenty percent of the money assignable as an advance could be received by beneficiaries upon application; the next 55 percent could be obtained after some justification of claim; and the remaining 25 percent could be advanced only after final estimate of the damages sustained.

Advances for actual construction were limited by the law of October 12, 1918, to 75 percent of the amount of damage as estimated by the special committee established by the Government under the law of July 30, 1915. In the case of cooperatives, however, this limitation was raised to 90 percent, in recognition of their lower expense ratio, their efficiency, and their simplicity of control.

Each reconstruction cooperative was expected to draw up an annual program of work. It was customary (although this was not required)

to give preference to repairs of damaged buildings over new construction; agricultural establishments had priority over private dwellings; and widows of soldiers killed in the war were usually served first. After the total financial requirements for a year were established, the cooperative could obtain 25 percent of this total. Each month every cooperative had to submit its report on expenditures to the Service de Contrôle des Coopératives, in order to justify requests for further advances. To secure continuity of construction works the Service de Contrôle des Coopératives was entitled to advance up to 80 percent of the yearly total without waiting for the completion of final checking and approval of the reports previously submitted.

Although direct financing by the Government was the backbone of the whole program, it was recognized that certain special projects (such as the rebuilding of churches) would appeal rather strongly to the local population, and the local financial market would be able to provide the necessary resources. The cooperatives were therefore authorized by the laws of July 12, 1921, and December 31, 1922, to float public loans. Subscription could be arranged either through a bank or on the financial market. In issuing loans, cooperatives might choose one of the five following methods: (1) To act individually and under their own names; (2) to unite with other cooperatives, for the purpose of the issue; (3) to join some other body, such as the municipality or commune having the right to make public loans; (4) to make arrangements through an emission agency; and (5) to participate, in issuing the loans, with the Confédération Générale des Sociétés Coopératives de Reconstruction (see below).

Central Organizations

For the coordination of their work, the organization of the auditing and legal services, educational activities, publication of bulletins, improvement in the methods of contracts with the Government, etc., reconstruction cooperatives organized into cooperative unions. The first such union was established in the Department of Meurthe-et-Moselle on June 9, 1919, although the organization of such unions was not authorized by law until 1920. The law of July 12, 1921, covered the unions in detail and empowered them in certain cases to intervene in the yearly plans of construction work as worked out by their member cooperatives. By January 1, 1923, there were 35 unions. A further step toward the coordination of the activities of reconstruction cooperatives was the grouping of their unions into federations of unions. These were an important organizational link in dealing with the Provincial governments.

The organization at the top of the whole cooperative reconstruction system was the Confédération Générale des Sociétés Coopératives de Reconstruction. It was organized at a conference in Paris, called on the initiative of one of the cooperative unions on January 26, 1921. It came into existence on March 1 of the same year, and was recognized by the law of March 31, 1922. The organization had for its tasks the coordination of the activities of the unions and their federations; working out standard forms of architectural and engineering contracts, as well as negotiating with the central organizations of the architects and engineers; organizing training courses for cooperative employees; and

acting as a liaison agency with the central Government. The general federation organized periodic meetings with governmental representatives (the first of such conferences on August 30, 1921, was attended by the Prime Minister) and representatives of various professional groups. It was very active in floating cooperative loan issues. On May 1, 1923, the federation had in affiliation 35 cooperative unions with 2,262 member cooperatives. These local cooperatives had a combined membership of 162,000 individuals.

Accomplishments of Reconstruction Cooperatives

Of 4,808 communes in the battle area in France, it was estimated that 1,030 were destroyed completely during the first World War, 1,235 were half destroyed, and 2,169 suffered some damage. Reconstruction cooperatives were active in 2,762 of these 4,434 communes. In the Department of the Marne, reconstruction cooperatives functioned in 258 of the 268 communes. The accompanying table shows the extent of the reconstruction cooperatives on May 1, 1923, in 10 Departments of France.

Reconstruction Cooperatives in 10 Departments in France, as of May 1, 1923

Department	Number of cooperatives	Number of cooperative unions	Membership	Funds of cooperatives
All Departments.....	2, 170	35	156, 756	<i>France</i> 3, 568, 000, 000
Aisne.....	443	6	34, 335	919, 000, 000
Ardennes.....	158	3	9, 150	250, 000, 000
Marne.....	140	2	11, 626	374, 000, 000
Meurthe-et-Moselle.....	203	3	11, 697	200, 000, 000
Meuse.....	237	5	11, 314	218, 000, 000
Nord.....	260	8	29, 435	460, 000, 000
Oise.....	94	2	4, 146	150, 000, 000
Pas-de-Calais.....	296	1	32, 052	671, 000, 000
Somme.....	316	4	11, 774	305, 000, 000
Vosges.....	23	1	1, 227	21, 000, 000

It is estimated that about 27 percent of all repair work and 58 percent of new construction were done in the devastated regions of France through reconstruction cooperatives. In the case of repairs the proportions ranged from 3 percent in the Department of Vosges to 79 percent in Meurthe-et-Moselle. In the case of new construction, the percentages were higher, and ranged from 35 percent (Nord) to 76 percent (Meurthe-et-Moselle). An estimated 50 percent of all reconstruction work in the devastated regions of France was done by cooperatives. It is stated that the city of Rheims, where there were only 15 houses left intact by the end of 1918 (out of 14,000 standing in 1914), was rebuilt mainly by cooperatives.

The total damage sustained by the members of cooperatives was estimated at 13 billion francs. The total value of the work done by reconstruction cooperatives had reached 5,800,372,000 francs by June 1, 1923.

Reconstruction cooperatives also participated in the program of obtaining reparations in kind from Germany. The applications of

individual cooperatives in such cases were submitted through the cooperative unions to the Commercial Service of the Confédération Générale. The latter was expected to find a trader in Germany and then the transaction was carried out through the regular channels of the Commission on Reparations. These operations did not develop to any considerable degree, however. The total value of commodities so obtained amounted to 738 million marks by June 1922, of which amount 534 million marks represented the value of coal delivered.

Attitude of public authorities toward reconstruction cooperatives.—There was no lack of expressions of appreciation of the accomplishments of the reconstruction cooperatives by French authorities. On December 29, 1919, M. Tardieu, Minister of Liberated Regions, in outlining to the Senate the conditions under which the reconstruction program could be accomplished, referred to the organization of cooperatives as one of the necessary conditions. Two days earlier he had said that "each time when there was an opportunity to substitute a cooperative or agricultural syndicated program of work for efforts of the State," he was ready "to render them all possible facilities, help, personnel, and, if necessary, even subsidies." In April 1921, when a budget for liberated regions was discussed in the French Parliament, the following statement was made by Desjardins: "In the most seriously devastated regions, those communities which have been glorified by the whole splendor of victory * * * can be referred to today, thanks to cooperatives, as models for the work of reconstruction."³

On February 7, 1922, Minister Reibel stated in the Chamber of Deputies: "I have said that it was a duty of the Government to encourage private initiative. In all Provinces this manifested itself, to varying degrees of intensity, in an especially interesting form: through cooperatives." Minister Reibel, in his report to the Senate, in March 1922, stated: "Savings in terms of time and money were the results of using cooperatives in matters pertaining to reconstruction. The State considers it an advantage to be faced with a few hundred organized societies, instead of hundreds of thousands of individual claimants. The majority of the houses repaired were repaired by cooperatives; the same is the case with the agricultural business buildings."³

Reviewing the work of reconstruction cooperatives as a whole, Senator Marquis G. de Lubersac wrote:

These are the cooperatives to which numerous villages are obliged for having risen from the dead. Thanks to cooperatives and their unions, the State was able with relatively small personnel to exercise control of payments of compensations granted to owners who suffered because of the war. This is an accomplishment of cooperatives: that the method preceded the action. * * * I wish that those outsiders who are so ready to criticize us for lack of organizational spirit would get acquainted at its source with that organizational order which prevails in some of our cooperative unions.

³ Data are from *L'Oeuvre des Sociétés coopératives de Reconstruction dans les Régions dévastées*, by Pierre Caraud (pp. 171, 172).

Recreation

Community Recreation in 1942

THE effect of the war was felt in the organized community-recreation service in 1942 as in every other aspect of life in the United States. The annual report of the National Recreation Association¹ shows that community-recreation services continued to provide for the normal needs of the people, and in many cities programs were adjusted or expanded to meet the needs of the men in the armed forces and workers in war industries, or special services were provided for them. The regular recreation agencies also assumed a large share in the programs sponsored by the local civilian-defense authorities. Recreation services for men in the armed forces were reported by 261 cities, and 271 cities had instituted such services for war workers. In 314 cities, the recreation authorities had the major responsibility for the civilian-defense recreation program, and in 252 cities for the physical-fitness activities.

Reports for 1942 cover the recreation services furnished to 1,075 communities, and the work of 1,167 agencies. More than 300 municipalities included in the report for the preceding year failed to provide information regarding their services, although it is known that in most cases recreation work was carried on during the year. As a result the summary figures are somewhat smaller than in 1941, but if the report were complete, it is believed a general expansion of most services would have been shown.

The total number of leaders paid from regular funds—26,244—was higher than in any previous year, in spite of heavy losses in leadership personnel to the armed forces and other war agencies. The increase in leadership, together with the higher amount paid in leaders' salaries, is explained in part by the need for replacing WPA leaders and also by the turnover in recreation personnel during the year, requiring the employment of additional workers. The number of full-time year-round workers was slightly smaller than in 1941, but there was a record number of volunteer leaders enrolled in response to the widespread demand for men and women to help with recreation programs. Nearly 15,000 persons were serving in this capacity, while almost 17,000 volunteers were enrolled in training courses.

The same general types of activities were reported as in previous years, active games and sports such as softball, baseball, tennis, horse-shoes, and swimming predominating, but the wartime influence was noted in the expanding programs of gardening, first-aid classes, and athletic and swimming badge tests.

¹ Recreation (New York), June 1943, yearbook number.

Community-recreation programs are largely built around the playgrounds and indoor centers, which offer large numbers of people regular opportunities for participation in recreational activities. There were 8,739 playgrounds and 4,449 buildings and centers reported in operation in 1942, the total attendance of participants and spectators at 8,005 playgrounds being reported as nearly 300 million, while the yearly attendance of participants at 3,481 buildings was more than 80 million.

The total expenditures for recreation from regular funds was \$31,372,700, which was slightly less than the expenditure in 1941. Of this amount \$20,587,895 was spent for salaries and wages, by 853 cities, the remainder being spent for land, buildings, and permanent improvements, and for upkeep, supplies, and incidentals. For several years local recreation leaders and funds have received assistance through emergency agencies, primarily the Works Progress Administration. The assistance from WPA was gradually withdrawn, however, and by the end of 1942 few cities were receiving such assistance.

The yearbook figures show, it is stated, that on the whole, in spite of wartime difficulties, the community-recreation movement held its own during the first year of American participation in the war.

Special War Recreation Services

Recreation services for the armed forces are provided by the Special Services Division, A. S. F., of the United States Army, and by the Welfare Division, Bureau of Naval Personnel, of the United States Navy. The service for the Army formulates policies, plans, and procedures for providing recreational and athletic programs, amateur and professional dramatics, moving pictures, libraries, and other recreational activities for units of the Army. This service also develops plans for the operation and the construction of service clubs, libraries, guest houses, theaters, and other recreation buildings. It operates both the Army and the Overseas Motion Picture Services, and supervises the organization, equipment, and training of officer personnel of Special Services units for service with overseas forces. The Division also publishes the Army newspaper, provides other news services for camps, and operates a radio and transcription service for troops, both in this country and overseas. Special Services units have been formed as mobile units to service overseas troops. They are infantry units, armed and ready for combat, but they carry their own motion-picture equipment, a loudspeaker system for broadcasting music, athletic equipment, games, etc., and organize various entertainment and educational programs.

Much the same kind of services are provided for all naval personnel, both ashore and afloat, by the Welfare Division of the Bureau of Naval Personnel. The Navy has drawn heavily on the community-recreation field for its recreation officers. The staff of the recreation office is made up of enlisted men who possess the necessary skill, from a variety of naval ratings, and they are assigned as needed. About half of the recreation officers serving with the naval forces have been specially selected from the recreation field by the Bureau of Naval Personnel. The Navy feels that the greatest need for recreation and morale-building activities is in connection with those forces far away from their homes and in foreign lands.

Special emphasis is placed on the development and maintenance of swimming skills—primarily to prepare for the hazards that may lie ahead at sea. The large number of swimming pools already built or planned for the future are not only for the recreational enjoyment of the men but are also for definite training in the techniques involved in survival at sea. This is particularly true in the training schools, training stations, and other naval activities through which personnel pass in transit to sea duty.

Other services provided for naval personnel are the library service and the motion-picture exchange. The latter contracts with the motion-picture industry for the best entertainment films it can produce. These services are provided both for ships and for shore stations.

Other Recreation Agencies

Assistance has been given in expanding and strengthening community-recreation services in approximately 2,500 war-industry localities during the past 2 years, by the Division of Recreation of the Office of Community War Services, Federal Security Agency. This Division is the central agency for the coordination of recreation services made available by the Federal Government and other public and private agencies, to meet the needs of States and local communities arising from the war program. A field staff of 80 representatives assists by organizing war-recreation committees in communities where there is a military or a war-industrial impact. During 1942, 632 new war recreation committees were established, bringing the total number of active committees to 1,173.

Other agencies providing special recreation facilities for members of the armed services are the American Red Cross, the United Service Organizations, and the United Seamen's Service, which cooperates closely with the War Shipping Administration.

The Federal Public Housing Authority has assumed responsibility for providing facilities where satisfactory recreation facilities are not available or are inadequate, in connection with war housing projects, and the Federal Works Agency has contributed substantially to the provision of recreational facilities for men in the armed services through the allocation of Lanham Act funds for the construction, maintenance, and operation of recreation centers. As of April 30, 1943, total allocations of \$28,884,510 of Lanham Act funds for recreational facilities had been approved by the President. The larger part of this money was used for construction, but some was spent for leasing and renovating existing buildings, and for the purchase of equipment.

Industrial Accidents

Industrial Injuries in April 1943

APRIL reports from 11,546 manufacturing plants listed 26,999 disabling work injuries experienced by employees during the month. The reporting plants employed nearly 6,511,300 workers, or nearly 41 percent of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' estimate of total manufacturing employment during the month. Assuming that the reporting establishments constitute a representative sample, the total number of disabling injuries experienced by workers in all manufacturing plants of the United States during April, therefore, may be estimated as about 66,000.

The actual record of days lost from work because of occupational injuries is not available. On the average, however, each disabling injury conservatively may be expected to result in the loss of about 20 days from work. The disabling industrial injuries experienced by manufacturing workers in April, therefore, represent the direct loss of 1,320,000 man-days of production, without any allowance for the continuing economic loss resulting from the many deaths included in the totals or from the reduced productivity of those workers who suffered permanent physical impairments. This direct loss is equivalent to the complete withdrawal of over 50,000 workers from their manufacturing activities for the full month of April.

The number of fatal industrial injuries reported in April amounted to 0.3 percent of all the disabling injuries, proportionately the same as in March. The proportionate number of cases reported as resulting in permanent impairments rose slightly in April to 3.1 percent of all disabling cases, compared with 2.9 percent in March.

In general, the April industrial injury-frequency rates for particular industries showed little change from those for March. Eleven industries, however, had April frequency rates that were 5 or more points higher than their corresponding March rates, and 10 industries had April rates that were 5 or more points lower than their March rates. Wide fluctuations in the monthly injury-frequency rates cannot be considered highly indicative in evaluating safety conditions within particular industries. The general level maintained by successive monthly rates, on the other hand, is a very pertinent measure of the true conditions existing within an industry. The cumulative frequency rates shown in the accompanying table reflect this level as an average for the first 4 months of 1943.

Cumulative injury-frequency rates for the first 4 months of 1943 ranged from an average of 4.8 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked in the women's clothing industry to 70.7 in the planing-mill industry. In two other woodworking industries,

sawmills and wooden container manufacturing, there were more than 50 disabling injuries for every million employee-hours worked. Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products plants, enameling and galvanizing plants, and foundries also had 4-month averages of over 40 disabling injuries for each million hours worked. At the other end of the scale, there were seven industries with 4-month frequency rates indicating less than 10 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked. In the order of their frequency rates, the manufacturing industries reporting the best records for the 4-month period were women's clothing, 4.8; sighting and fire-control equipment, 7.3; rayon and allied products (chemical), 7.4; radios and phonographs, 7.9; soap, 8.3; men's clothing, 8.4; and cement, 8.8.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency¹ Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, April 1943
Compared With March 1943, With Cumulative Rates for 1943*

Industry ²	April		March frequency rate ³	1943 cu- mulative frequency rate
	Number of estab- lishments	Frequency rate ³		
Agricultural machinery and tractors.....	54	16.8	15.8	15.9
Aircraft.....	32	9.9	8.4	10.8
Aircraft parts.....	151	24.7	15.9	20.1
Ammunition, 20 mm. and over.....	325	26.9	33.1	29.2
Ammunition, small arms.....	18	14.1	27.3	20.2
Baking.....	15	19.1	20.3	18.2
Book and job printing.....	30	15.2	12.7	13.7
Boots and shoes, not rubber.....	314	16.7	12.9	14.0
Canning and preserving.....	58	24.3	13.2	18.9
Carpets and rugs.....	10	11.0	11.0	14.3
Cement.....	90	7.3	7.5	8.8
Chemicals, industrial.....	231	17.9	23.8	17.4
Clothing, men's.....	518	7.9	9.3	8.4
Clothing, women's.....	362	5.2	3.6	4.8
Coke ovens.....	21	24.6	11.6	20.5
Concrete, gypsum, and plaster products.....	135	39.6	40.5	47.7
Confectionery.....	9	18.8	22.9	17.8
Construction and mining machinery.....	102	34.1	32.9	31.5
Corrugated boxes.....	95	38.5	48.9	39.7
Cotton goods.....	126	15.1	16.6	14.6
Cutlery and edge tools.....	30	23.8	23.2	20.9
Druggist preparations.....	47	27.1	23.3	21.9
Dyeing and finishing.....	51	23.1	18.9	20.3
Electrical equipment and supplies.....	578	10.2	11.1	10.9
Enameling, galvanizing, etc.....	16	50.7	43.3	47.2
Explosives.....	36	5.4	8.2	10.3
Fabricated structural steel.....	107	37.9	28.0	31.8
Fiber boxes.....	39	34.7	23.5	28.2
Folding boxes.....	102	25.3	24.6	22.4
Food-products machinery.....	24	32.0	25.3	32.1
Forgings, iron and steel.....	144	40.6	37.6	37.9
Foundries, iron and steel.....	601	44.5	43.1	42.9
Furniture, except metal.....	65	30.3	26.1	28.5
Furniture, metal.....	24	37.7	(4)	33.5
General industrial machinery.....	738	23.3	25.7	24.1
Glass.....	29	19.6	18.1	17.6
Guns and related equipment.....	148	18.4	19.2	17.5
Hardware.....	43	24.1	21.3	22.9
Iron and steel.....	247	9.9	9.7	10.2
Knit goods.....	58	10.9	12.3	11.9
Leather.....	21	25.2	27.3	24.3
Metalworking machinery.....	712	20.0	20.8	20.2
Motor vehicles.....	129	16.1	17.3	15.5
Motor-vehicle parts.....	55	22.9	26.4	23.9
Nonferrous-metal products.....	386	24.3	23.0	24.5
Paints and varnishes.....	69	26.2	24.1	23.1
Paper.....	220	32.4	35.4	31.8
Paper and pulp (integrated).....	76	24.6	25.3	24.8
Petroleum refining.....	207	11.6	11.8	12.3
Planing mills.....	30	57.4	80.5	70.7
Plate fabrication and boiler-shop products.....	52	41.8	(4)	(4)
Plumbers' supplies.....	24	19.1	18.2	17.9
Pottery.....	10	23.5	24.8	21.5
Pulp.....	22	37.8	(4)	31.3

See footnotes at end of table.

*Industrial Injury-Frequency¹ Rates for Selected Manufacturing Industries, April 1943
Compared With March 1943, With Cumulative Rates for 1943—Continued*

Industry ²	April		March frequency rate ³	1943 cu- mulative frequency rate
	Number of estab- lishments	Frequency rate ³		
Radios and phonographs.....	192	7.1	7.5	7.9
Railroad equipment.....	35	15.6	20.7	19.9
Rayon and allied products (chemical).....	14	6.6	8.3	7.4
Rubber boots and shoes.....	11	12.3	18.0	14.2
Rubber tires.....	28	15.1	14.9	13.4
Sawmills.....	33	65.6	67.3	64.3
Set-up boxes.....	259	18.2	17.2	16.5
Shipbuilding.....	183	30.9	30.2	30.2
Sighting and fire-control equipment.....	33	6.0	6.1	7.3
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	210	31.6	35.6	37.0
Small arms.....	49	10.8	11.1	10.1
Smelting and refining (nonferrous).....	162	25.6	25.9	26.9
Soap.....	14	9.9	6.6	8.3
Stamped and pressed metal products.....	305	30.2	30.8	32.5
Steam fittings and apparatus.....	67	29.0	38.0	33.5
Stoves and furnaces, not electric.....	58	38.4	33.2	35.4
Tanks, military.....	23	16.1	10.1	10.6
Tank parts, military.....	45	28.7	21.4	21.6
Textile machinery.....	15	18.7	12.5	13.7
Tin cans and other tinware.....	43	19.2	24.9	19.6
Tools, except edge tools.....	64	19.3	16.8	20.0
Wire and wire products.....	147	25.3	22.8	22.8
Wooden containers.....	43	47.7	53.7	53.1
Woolen goods.....	151	17.5	18.4	18.3

¹ The frequency rate represents the average number of disabling industrial injuries for each million employee-hours worked.

² A few industries have been omitted from this table because the coverage for the month did not amount to 1,000,000 or more employee-hours worked.

³ Computed from all reports received for each month. Not based on identical plants in the 2 months.

⁴ Not available.

Industrial Disputes

Strikes in June 1943

PRELIMINARY strike estimates for June 1943 show that about 950,000 workers were involved in new strikes, with 4,750,000 man-days of idleness during all strikes. This idleness is approximately 0.6 percent of the available working time throughout industry.

About 85 percent of the total workers involved and about 90 percent of total June idleness was due to the two general coal-mining stoppages. A detailed account of these stoppages appears in the article following. Idleness during all except coal strikes amounted to about 0.06 percent of available working time, or about the same ratio as in 1942 and the early months of 1943.

Strikes in First 6 Months of 1943, With Comparative Figures for June in Earlier Years¹

Month and year	Strikes beginning in month		Man-days idle during month (all strikes)	
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Percent of available working time
1943: ¹				
January.....	195	90,000	450,000	0.06
February.....	210	42,000	170,000	.02
March.....	260	72,000	230,000	.03
April.....	395	200,000	675,000	.08
May.....	395	620,000	1,275,000	.16
June.....	400	950,000	4,750,000	.60
June 1942.....	345	109,611	586,408	.09
June 1941.....	357	142,689	1,504,056	.24
June average, 1935-39.....	290	101,832	1,893,299	(²)

¹ Figures for 1943 are not final but subject to change as later information is received. All figures exclude strikes lasting less than 1 working day (or shift) and those involving fewer than 6 workers.

² Not available.

The Coal Disputes of 1943

THE 2-year employer-union contracts in the bituminous-coal mining industry expired March 31, 1943, and in the anthracite industry, April 30, 1943. The work stoppages which occurred in connection with negotiating new agreements presented some extremely perplexing problems to a nation at war and resulted in some far-reaching effects on industry and on the status of organized labor in general.

Recent Collective Bargaining

Since the latter part of 1933, the United Mine Workers of America has had almost industry-wide collective bargaining in the country's coal mines. The basis for the various district union contracts in the bituminous industry has been the Appalachian Agreement,¹ a master contract embodying certain basic terms which are adopted with minor variations in the various districts. The first Appalachian Agreement, signed in September 1933, gave the miners a 5-day, 40-hour week with basic day rates of \$4.60 in the Northern territory and \$4.20 in the Southern territory. In April 1934 a new contract provided for a 7-hour day, 35-hour week and raised basic wages to \$5.00 a day in the North and \$4.60 in the South. The next agreement signed in the fall of 1935 provided a basic rate of \$5.50 in the North and \$5.10 in the South. The agreement signed in April 1937 retained the 35-hour week, established payment of time and a half for overtime and raised basic wages to \$6.00 a day in the North and \$5.60 in the South. After a strike in the spring of 1939 an agreement was signed in May establishing union-shop conditions in most of the independent mines. Another strike in the spring of 1941 resulted in a 2-year agreement which eliminated the North-South differentials in wages and increased the basic wage to \$7.00 a day. A strike in the fall of 1941 in the captive mines (those owned by steel companies) resulted in the extension of the union shop to these mines.²

The union agreement in the anthracite industry is based on the award of the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission in 1903 and subsequent agreements which modify or supplement the award, and rulings and decisions of the Anthracite Board of Conciliation. In 1936 a 7-hour day and 5-day week was established in place of the previous 8-hour day and 6-day week, although no change was made in the daily wage. The 1939 agreement provided for the union shop. Although no general wage rate changes were made between 1923 and 1941, the Board of Conciliation had made adjustments from time to time in individual rates at the different collieries. The 1941 agreement provided an immediate increase of 7½ percent and an additional 10 percent on October 1, 1941. In 1941 both the anthracite and bituminous-coal workers were granted a paid vacation for the first time.

The 1943 Negotiations

Negotiations for a new agreement in the bituminous-coal industry were started on March 10. They were carried on with two different groups, the Operators Negotiating Committee, Appalachian Joint Conference, representing the Northern operators, and the Southern Appalachian Joint Conference, representing coal operators in southern West Virginia, Virginia, eastern Kentucky, and Tennessee. The

¹ The Appalachian area includes Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Maryland, West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee.

² This dispute was referred to the National Defense Mediation Board, which refused the miners' demand. The President thereupon appointed a special arbitration board which granted the union shop. This dispute was the occasion for the dissolution of the NDMB, established the previous March, for when the Board rejected the miners' demand the C. I. O. members withdrew. Subsequently the President called a conference of labor, employer, and public representatives who recommended the establishment of the National War Labor Board. The same public members served on the new Board and the objection of the United Mine Workers' president toward appearing before this Board was a major factor in the recent coal-mining dispute.

union presented a number of demands, the most important of which were a basic wage increase of \$2.00 per day; an annual 6-day work-week guaranty; portal-to-portal pay, that is, pay for all time spent in the mines, going to and from the actual place of work; contract coverage for foremen and other supervisory employees except mine superintendents;³ double time for Sunday work; increase in the vacation bonus; and shift of the cost of equipment and tools to the employer.

As the expiration date of the contract approached and there was no agreement on any of the issues, the President requested, and the parties agreed that the terms of the existing contract be extended for 30 days with the understanding that any future adjustment would be retroactive to April 1. After several weeks' efforts to obtain a settlement, the Secretary of Labor, on the recommendation of the Director of the United States Conciliation Service, certified the dispute to the War Labor Board, which called a meeting on April 24. The representatives of the operators appeared but none from the United Mine Workers.

During the month of April there had been a number of scattered strikes in the industry and on April 26 the War Labor Board called upon the union to terminate these strikes so that negotiations could proceed without interruption. On the same day the Board appointed a tripartite panel to conduct hearings and make recommendations. When the United Mine Workers refused to make nominations for their representatives on this panel, the Board appointed the President of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen. The United Mine Workers' officials failed to appear at the panel hearings. As strikes continued, the War Labor Board referred the case to the President in line with its policy of refusing to continue consideration of a case while any workers or companies involved are interfering with war production.

During the month of April negotiations had been in progress, also, between the union and operators of anthracite mines, the principal issues being about the same as in the bituminous-coal case. After a month of unsuccessful negotiations, the Secretary of Labor, on April 30, certified the anthracite dispute to the War Labor Board.

On April 29 President Roosevelt ordered all striking miners to be back to work by 10 a. m. May 1, pointing out the vital need for uninterrupted production and asserted that upon failure of the miners to resume work he would use his powers as Commander-in-Chief of the Armed Forces to prevent further interruptions. On the morning of May 1, mine operations in the anthracite and Appalachian areas and in some of the Middle Western States came to a virtual halt with more than 325,000 bituminous-coal miners and about 75,000 anthracite miners stopping work. By agreement between the companies and union, maintenance workers continued on duty to take care of the machinery and guard against floods, fires, and other hazards in the pits. In the Western States the district officers had agreed not to stop production without a 5-day notice, and production continued in these districts except in a few scattered mines.

When the 10 a. m. deadline passed on May 1, with the miners still idle, the President ordered the Secretary of the Interior, who was also Administrator of Solid Fuels, to take over and operate all coal mines

³ This was later dropped after the National Labor Relations Board in another case (Maryland Dry-Dock Co., May 21, 1943) declined to recognize units of supervisory employees as appropriate for collective bargaining.

in the name of the United States Government. The Secretary immediately appointed the existing managers of the mines as operating managers for the Government and issued orders to hoist the United States flag at each mine, thus signifying that the mine was under Government control.

On the evening of Sunday, May 2, the President in a Nation-wide radio address explained the Government action and appealed to the idle miners to resume work the next morning. The same evening John L. Lewis, president of the United Mine Workers, announced a 15-day "truce" and ordered the miners back to work. Full production under Government operation of the mines was resumed by May 4th and the National War Labor Board panel proceeded with its hearing on both the bituminous-coal and anthracite cases. The union officials, however, attended none of the hearings. The Board thereupon instructed the operators not to continue with collective bargaining until both parties were ready to proceed under the auspices and instructions of the Board. The day before the expiration of the "truce" union officials, in response to a request of the Secretary of Interior, agreed to have the miners continue work through May 31.

On May 25 the War Labor Board announced that under the wage-stabilization policy of the Government it could not grant the \$2-a-day increase. The order also denied the 52-week, 6-day work-week guaranty, double time for Sunday, and some other demands. The order granted an increase in the vacation bonus from \$20 to \$50, and specified that safety equipment and working tools should be furnished by the operators. With respect to portal-to-portal pay, the Board directed the parties to undertake to reach a settlement themselves and to report back to the Board within 15 days. Labor members of the Board dissented from that part of the order denying the \$2-a-day increase.

The miners refused to accept these terms and on June 1 the Labor Board's order to continue operations was again ignored and coal production was again halted. On June 3, President Roosevelt instructed the Secretary of Interior to reopen the mines and order the miners to return to work on Monday, June 7. Union officials thereupon authorized resumption of work but for a temporary period only—until June 20.

During this interval there were additional threats of stoppages following the announcement by the Secretary of Interior that a fine of \$1 per day, as provided in the old contracts as a penalty for striking, would be levied on the bituminous-coal miners who had refused to work on May 1 and 3. There was immediate objection from the miners and union leaders who claimed that the agreements had expired and hence there was no authority for the Secretary's levying of fines. The Secretary maintained that all actions taken by the Federal Government had been predicated on the agreements' being in force, since they had been extended by Governmental authority. The next day, however, the Secretary announced that the question of fines should be settled in each locality through the regular grievance machinery provided in the agreements.

Hearings were begun by the War Labor Board on June 11 on the portal-to-portal issue and again the United Mine Workers' representatives failed to appear. On June 18 the War Labor Board (labor members dissenting) issued its decision denying the portal-to-

portal pay but stating that the miners were "free to press their demand before the Administrator of the Fair Labor Standards Act and in the Federal Courts, and the operators retain their rights to seek pertinent administrative and court rulings." The Board's decision reaffirmed its order of May 25 and further outlined provisions of contracts to be executed by the parties, effective until March 31, 1945, including the clause "For the duration of the war no strike shall either be called or maintained hereunder."

Upon release of the Board's decision, the policy committee of the United Mine Workers issued a statement that there had been "bad faith and political maneuvering" throughout the negotiations and that the union would refuse to sign the 2-year, no-strike agreement. Most of the miners, for the third time, ceased work. However, on June 23 the union issued a back-to-work order to its members, to continue in effect until October 31, 1943. The union stated that the order was predicated on operation of the mines by the United States Government and would automatically terminate should the mines be turned back to the operators.

The order of the union officials to go back to work at the old rates of pay was not fully accepted by the miners, many locals rejecting the order and remaining on strike. On June 24 President Roosevelt issued a statement that although the large proportion of American workers had kept their no-strike pledge, the United Mine Workers and its leaders were creating an intolerable situation for a nation at war. He said that the Government did not accept the October 31 deadline, that the Government was making no promise to alter the War Labor Board's decision, and that "for the present" the mines would continue to be operated by the Government.

Meanwhile the continued stoppages in the mines were having their effect in Congress where an "anti-strike" bill was passed on June 14.⁴ The President vetoed the bill on June 25, but within a few hours both Houses of Congress passed the bill over his veto.

A majority of the mines gradually resumed work during the last week of June but a number of mines remained idle as late as the middle of July. The various stoppages, which occurred during April, May, and June and continued into July, caused approximately 6,000,000 man-days of idleness in the coal industry. About 700,000 man-days of idleness resulted from the general stoppage on May 1 and 3; over 2,000,000 from the 5-day general stoppage beginning June 1; and about 2,500,000 during the prolonged stoppage beginning June 21. The numerous scattered stoppages caused a total idleness of nearly one-half million man-days.

The effect of these stoppages of work on coal production was considerable. Normally, about 1,350,000 tons of anthracite and 12,000,000 tons of bituminous coal would have been mined each week during this period. As a result of the various stoppages, there was a total loss in production of about 3,500,000 tons of anthracite and 21,750,000 tons of bituminous coal.

⁴ For the terms of this act, the Connally-Smith "War Labor Disputes Act," see p. 305 of this issue.

Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, June 1943

THE United States Conciliation Service, during June, disposed of 2,200 situations involving 1,309,253 workers (table 1). The services of this agency were requested by the employers, employees, and other interested parties. Of these situations 253 were strikes and lockouts involving 107,002 workers; 1,125 were threatened strikes and controversies involving 418,554 workers. During the month 437 disputes were certified to the National War Labor Board, and in 62 cases other agencies assumed jurisdiction. The remaining 323 situations included investigations, arbitrations, requests for information, consultations, etc.

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, June 1943, by Type of Situation*

Type of situation	Number	Workers involved
All situations handled.....	12,200	1,309,253
Disputes.....	1,378	525,556
Strikes.....	245	101,844
Threatened strikes.....	176	66,097
Lockouts.....	8	5,158
Controversies.....	949	352,457
Other situations.....	323	70,688
Investigations.....	56	5,272
Technical services.....	22	28,036
Arbitrations.....	135	34,028
Requests to conduct consent elections.....	6	619
Requests for verification of union membership.....	1	522
Requests for information.....	10	21
Consultations.....	52	158
Special services of Commissioners.....	29	1,987
Complaints.....	12	45
Disputes referred to other agencies during negotiations.....	499	713,009
To National War Labor Board.....	437	689,688
To National Labor Relations Board.....	32	6,566
To other Federal agencies.....	9	2,793
To Wage Adjustment Board.....	5	5,271
To nongovernmental agencies.....	10	7,002
To State agencies.....	6	1,689

¹ During the month 145 cases involving 71,336 workers were adjusted subject to hearings (officer or arbitration procedure with the hearings officer or arbiter to be selected by the National War Labor Board.

The facilities of the Service were used in 28 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 2), and were utilized by employees and employers in 48 States, Alaska, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico (table 3).

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, June 1943, by Industries

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	1,877	1,238,565	323	70,688	2,200	1,309,253
Agriculture.....	4	3,456			4	3,456
Building trades.....	59	35,295	17	9,510	76	44,805
Chemicals.....	69	31,328	8	352	77	31,680
Communications.....	10	4,227			10	4,227
Domestic and personal.....	73	14,278	10	875	83	15,153
Electrical equipment.....	35	21,193	11	1,835	46	23,028
Food.....	200	54,743	29	3,131	229	57,874
Furniture and finished lumber.....	105	31,206	5	367	110	31,573
Iron and steel.....	279	140,537	42	9,693	321	150,230
Leather.....	45	15,238	20	1,337	65	16,575
Lumber.....	69	15,312	6	1,079	75	16,391
Machinery.....	103	79,023	15	665	118	79,688
Maritime.....	8	3,019			8	3,019
Mining.....	9	1,618	1	200	10	1,818
Motion pictures.....	2	345			2	345
Nonferrous metals.....	59	28,294	14	684	73	28,978
Paper.....	25	3,752	6	204	31	3,956
Petroleum.....	36	9,478	8	1,518	44	10,996
Printing.....	48	6,660	4	242	52	6,902
Professional.....	7	1,762	1	1	8	1,763
Rubber.....	19	8,265	7	3,224	26	11,489
Stone, clay, and glass.....	69	25,520	14	895	83	26,415
Textile.....	87	38,314	29	1,064	116	39,378
Tobacco.....	8	11,363			8	11,363
Trade.....	104	7,567	12	1,701	116	9,268
Transportation.....	114	112,571	14	2,240	128	114,811
Transportation equipment.....	141	488,738	26	27,906	167	516,644
Utilities.....	21	12,334	4	67	25	12,401
Unclassified.....	69	33,129	20	1,898	89	35,027

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Industrial Disputes

297

TABLE 3.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, June 1943, by States

States	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All States.....	1,877	1,238,565	323	70,688	2,200	1,309,253
Alabama.....	31	4,952	4	229	35	5,181
Alaska.....	3	393	1	54	4	447
Arizona.....	10	2,666	—	—	10	2,666
Arkansas.....	7	1,735	4	265	11	2,000
California.....	124	101,132	13	1,001	137	102,133
Colorado.....	12	771	—	—	12	771
Connecticut.....	26	21,114	5	278	31	21,392
Delaware.....	4	5,137	1	15	5	5,152
District of Columbia.....	13	2,779	3	413	16	3,192
Florida.....	13	10,173	2	60	15	10,233
Georgia.....	15	3,083	11	761	26	3,844
Hawaii.....	1	117	—	—	1	117
Idaho.....	3	1,058	1	5	4	1,063
Illinois.....	215	123,355	23	2,187	238	125,542
Indiana.....	62	15,421	15	2,600	77	18,021
Iowa.....	39	8,024	4	134	43	8,158
Kansas.....	14	6,125	3	256	17	6,381
Kentucky.....	10	2,209	5	291	15	2,500
Louisiana.....	22	17,604	7	170	29	17,774
Maine.....	4	1,965	1	2	5	1,967
Maryland.....	17	91,592	2	6	19	91,598
Massachusetts.....	47	49,112	19	3,907	66	53,019
Michigan.....	147	301,340	42	3,885	189	305,225
Minnesota.....	42	8,280	2	260	44	8,540
Mississippi.....	2	75	1	2	3	77
Missouri.....	92	31,735	5	132	97	31,867
Montana.....	13	2,299	—	—	13	2,299
Nebraska.....	14	3,611	—	—	14	3,611
Nevada.....	4	2,742	—	—	4	2,742
New Hampshire.....	6	735	4	326	10	1,261
New Jersey.....	77	57,873	11	24,651	88	82,524
New Mexico.....	2	430	—	—	2	430
New York.....	158	60,593	16	1,160	174	61,753
North Carolina.....	20	13,883	3	710	23	14,593
North Dakota.....	2	76	—	—	2	76
Ohio.....	150	77,591	33	2,869	183	80,460
Oklahoma.....	9	762	6	204	15	966
Oregon.....	46	13,829	1	4	47	13,833
Pennsylvania.....	137	78,533	27	17,385	164	95,918
Puerto Rico.....	6	3,399	1	1	7	3,400
Rhode Island.....	8	7,349	—	—	8	7,349
South Carolina.....	5	1,127	5	23	10	1,150
South Dakota.....	1	18	—	—	1	18
Tennessee.....	31	5,594	7	302	38	5,896
Texas.....	35	42,193	8	941	43	43,134
Utah.....	5	900	—	—	5	900
Vermont.....	1	234	—	—	1	234
Virginia.....	16	6,832	5	95	21	6,927
Washington.....	50	18,296	7	939	57	19,235
West Virginia.....	28	7,559	5	652	33	8,211
Wisconsin.....	76	20,111	10	3,313	86	23,424
Wyoming.....	2	49	—	—	2	49

Cost of Living

Cost of Living in Large Cities, June 1943

WITH other living costs relatively stable, a drop in fresh vegetable and butter prices cut the cost of living for city workers by 0.2 percent in the month ending June 15—the first reduction since a year before Pearl Harbor. This small decrease compares with increases of 0.8 percent for the month ending May 15, 1.1 percent in the month ending April 15, and 1.5 percent for the month ending March 15.

Potatoes dropped 9 percent in price, as contrasted with a usual slight rise at this time of the year. Fresh vegetables as a group showed more-than-seasonal declines of 8 to 13 percent from their previous abnormal levels, as new crops came onto the market and as victory gardens began to produce. Butter dropped about 5 cents a pound to a national average of 50.5 cents a pound, under the subsidy program. Butter and potatoes together make up about 9 percent of the cost of food and about 4 percent of the total cost of living in the monthly index compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Victory gardens will affect the level of the cost-of-living index only as they lower commercial prices; the index can take no account of the drop in food costs during the summer for many millions of families who grow their own vegetables, nor can it reflect the added effort and inconvenience of wartime living. It is designed simply to measure changes in retail prices of goods and services currently purchased by families of city wage earners and clerical workers.

Food prices as a whole, making up over 40 percent of the index, declined 0.8 percent because of lower prices for fresh vegetables and butter. Prices of canned fruits and vegetables declined 0.5 percent as OPA established local dollar-and-cent ceilings in many large cities in May. Eggs, apples, and oranges showed the chief increases, because of seasonal reductions in supply. Prices of meats were generally unchanged, slight increases for beef, lamb, and fish being balanced by slight decreases for pork and chickens. Most costs, making up the other 60 percent of the index, remained fairly stable. Declines ranging from less than 1 percent to almost 12 percent were reported for rayon hose; and there were increases in the cost of cotton underwear and pajamas because of the disappearance of lower-priced lines. Prices of summer clothing were higher than in June 1942. Men's shirts made in accordance with WPB limitation orders came onto the market at slightly below the May 1943 price.

The cost of miscellaneous goods and services, such as medical care, movies, and beauty- and barber-shop services, continued to increase. Automobile collision-insurance premiums were reduced because of the increasing age of cars on the road.

Housefurnishings, fuel prices, and utility rates were generally stable, and rents were reported practically unchanged from the March levels.

In mid-June the whole cost-of-living index stood at 124.8 percent of the 1935-39 average, 23.8 percent above January 1941 (base date of the "Little Steel" formula) and 7.6 percent above May 1942 when the OPA initiated retail-price control. Food prices, however, were 45 percent above January 1941 and more than 16 percent above May 1942.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities on June 15, 1943, and Previous Dates

Date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1939: August 15.....	98.6	93.5	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
1941: January 15.....	100.8	97.8	100.7	105.0	100.8	100.1	101.9
1942: May 15.....	116.0	121.6	126.2	109.9	104.9	122.2	110.9
June 15.....	116.4	123.2	125.3	108.5	105.0	122.3	110.9
September 15.....	117.8	126.6	125.8	108.0	106.2	123.6	111.4
1943: May 15.....	125.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1	115.3
June 15.....	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Change ¹ in Cost of Living in Large Cities in Specified Periods

Period	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
May 15, 1943, to June 15, 1943.....	-0.2	-0.8	0	0	+0.1	+0.2	+0.3
Sept. 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943.....	+5.9	+12.1	+1.7	0	+1.4	+1.5	+3.9
June 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943.....	+7.2	+15.2	+2.1	-0.5	+2.6	+2.5	+4.3
May 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943.....	+7.6	+16.7	+1.3	-1.7	+2.7	+2.6	+4.3
Jan. 15, 1941, to June 15, 1943.....	+23.8	+45.1	+27.0	+2.9	+6.8	+25.3	+13.5
Aug. 15, 1939, to June 15, 1943.....	+26.6	+51.8	+27.5	+3.5	+10.5	+24.7	+15.2

¹ Based on changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change ¹ in Cost of Living Between May 15, 1943, and June 15, 1943, by Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	-0.2	-0.8	0	0	+0.1	+0.2	+0.3
New England:							
Boston.....	-0.4	-0.9	-0.2	0	0	+0.3	+0.4
Manchester.....	(²)	+0.8	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Portland, Maine.....	(²)	+0.2	(²)	(²)	-0.1	(²)	(²)
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	-0.8	-1.8	+0.1	0	-0.2	+0.1	-0.2
New York.....	-0.3	-1.3	+0.2	+0.1	+0.3	+0.3	+1.2
Philadelphia.....	-0.8	-1.7	-0.2	0	-0.1	+0.4	0
Pittsburgh.....	0	-0.1	+0.2	0	0	+0.4	-0.1
Scranton.....	(²)	-0.6	(²)	(²)	0	(²)	(²)
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	-0.3	-0.8	+0.2	0	0	+0.1	+0.1
Cincinnati.....	+0.4	+0.7	-0.2	0	-0.1	+0.2	+0.6
Cleveland.....	+0.9	+2.2	-0.2	+0.1	-0.2	+0.1	+0.3
Detroit.....	-0.4	-1.3	+0.1	+0.1	-0.1	+0.2	+0.6
Indianapolis.....	(²)	+0.1	(²)	(²)	+1.9	(²)	(²)
Milwaukee.....	(²)	-0.3	(²)	(²)	-0.1	(²)	(²)
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	-0.5	-1.4	+0.2	+0.1	0	+0.9	0
Minneapolis.....	+0.1	-0.6	+0.5	+0.1	+0.4	+0.2	+0.9
St. Louis.....	-0.3	-1.0	+0.1	-0.1	0	+0.1	+0.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living Between May 15, 1943, and June 15, 1943, by Cities—Continued

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House, furnishings	Miscellaneous
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	(?)	+0.7	(?)	(?)	0	(?)	(?)
Baltimore.....	-0.1	-1	0	-0.1	-0.1	+0.1	-0.1
Jacksonville.....	(?)	+1	(?)	(?)	0	(?)	(?)
Norfolk.....	(?)	-1.0	(?)	(?)	-2	(?)	(?)
Richmond.....	(?)	-1.3	(?)	(?)	0	(?)	(?)
Savannah.....	+3	0	+0.1	0	0	+1	+1.7
Washington, D. C.....	+1	+1	+6	0	-4	+2	-1
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+5	+9	+1	0	+7	+4	+3
Memphis.....	(?)	-1.2	(?)	(?)	-2	(?)	(?)
Mobile.....	(?)	-1	(?)	(?)	+8.8	(?)	(?)
West South Central:							
Houston.....	-1.0	-2.6	-6	-1	+7	+2	+5
New Orleans.....	(?)	-2	(?)	(?)	-3	(?)	(?)
Mountain:							
Denver.....	-7	-1.9	+2	-1	-4	+1	+5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+4	+4	+2	+1	0	+1	+9
Portland, Oreg.....	(?)	-1.0	(?)	(?)	0	(?)	(?)
San Francisco.....	+5	+1.2	+2	0	0	0	-4
Seattle.....	-1.1	-2.5	-5	+4	0	+3	-2

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.² Based on data for 56 cities.³ Monthly data not available.TABLE 4.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living in Specified Periods, by Cities

City	Percent of change from—				
	June 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943	Aug. 15, 1939, to June 15, 1943	Jan. 1, 1941, to June 15, 1943	May 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943	Sept. 15, 1942, to June 15, 1943
Average: Large cities.....	+7.2	+26.6	+23.8	+7.6	+5.9
New England:					
Boston.....	+6.9	+25.4	+22.9	+7.4	+4.8
Manchester.....	+7.9	+31.4	+28.2	(?)	+6.9
Portland, Maine.....	+6.7	+28.2	+26.4	(?)	+5.5
Middle Atlantic:					
Buffalo.....	+5.7	+29.7	+25.4	+6.1	+6.1
New York.....	+8.4	+25.1	+22.6	+9.3	+6.4
Philadelphia.....	+7.7	+26.6	+24.8	+7.9	+5.9
Pittsburgh.....	+6.8	+26.9	+23.4	+7.9	+6.3
Seranton.....	+8.1	+28.8	+24.6	(?)	+7.3
East North Central:					
Chicago.....	+6.7	+25.7	+22.6	+6.5	+5.8
Cincinnati.....	+6.4	+27.7	+24.8	+7.2	+5.3
Cleveland.....	+8.1	+29.2	+26.7	+8.8	+8.0
Detroit.....	+7.0	+28.7	+25.5	+6.7	+7.1
Indianapolis.....	+5.9	+28.8	+23.7	(?)	+6.0
Milwaukee.....	+6.1	+26.5	+23.7	(?)	+6.4
West North Central:					
Kansas City.....	+6.8	+23.6	+23.9	+6.8	+6.3
Minneapolis.....	+5.2	+22.3	+19.7	+5.2	+4.4
St. Louis.....	+6.0	+26.0	+22.4	+6.9	+6.0
South Atlantic:					
Atlanta.....	+8.4	+27.8	+25.5	(?)	+6.7
Baltimore.....	+7.5	+29.8	+27.2	+8.4	+6.9
Jacksonville.....	+9.0	+32.7	+28.3	(?)	+7.6
Norfolk.....	+9.2	+34.4	+30.6	(?)	+7.6
Richmond.....	+5.9	+25.1	+23.1	(?)	+4.6
Savannah.....	+10.1	+33.2	+30.5	+9.4	+8.4
Washington, D. C.....	+7.2	+25.6	+23.9	+7.9	+5.7
East South Central:					
Birmingham.....	+7.9	+28.3	+24.3	+6.5	+6.4
Memphis.....	+8.2	+29.9	+27.3	(?)	+6.5
Mobile.....	+8.2	+30.1	+27.8	(?)	+6.1
West South Central:					
Houston.....	+6.5	+22.3	+20.8	+6.0	+4.4
New Orleans.....	+9.6	+30.0	+27.4	(?)	+6.6
Mountain:					
Denver.....	+6.7	+25.3	+23.5	+6.8	+5.4
Pacific:					
Los Angeles.....	+6.5	+25.7	+23.2	+6.9	+3.6
Portland, Oreg.....	+7.0	+30.6	+28.1	(?)	+4.6
San Francisco.....	+9.2	+29.6	+26.4	+9.4	+6.5
Seattle.....	+7.5	+27.7	+25.5	+5.7	+4.4

¹ Based on cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.² Data not available.

TABLE 5.—Percent of Change¹ in Cost of Living Between Mar. 15, 1943, and June 15, 1943, by Cities

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities.....	+1.6	+3.3	+0.2	0	+0.3	+0.7	+1.0
New England:							
Boston.....	+1.0	+2.0	0	0	+2	+1	+8
Manchester.....	+1.8	+4.1	0	0	+1	+1.0	-3
Portland, Maine.....	+2.0	+4.6	-2	+0.2	0	+2	+9
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	+1.1	+2.8	-2	0	-2	+1	+2
New York.....	+1.5	+2.5	+8	+1	+1	+6	+1.6
Philadelphia.....	+2.0	+4.3	+2	0	-1	+1.0	+3
Pittsburgh.....	+1.9	+3.7	+1.2	0	+2	+1.2	+4
Seranton.....	+2.6	+5.5	+2	-2	0	+8	+5
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	+1.5	+3.0	0	+1	0	+2	+6
Cincinnati.....	+1.9	+3.0	+2	0	-1	+2.1	+2.6
Cleveland.....	+2.9	+7.2	0	+1	0	+4	+3
Detroit.....	+2.3	+4.3	0	+1	-1	+7	+2.6
Indianapolis.....	+2.2	+4.1	-2	+3	+4.1	+1.3	+9
Milwaukee.....	+1.7	+3.4	+2	0	+2.4	+1	+8
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	+1.0	+1.7	+7	+3	0	+2.1	+9
Minneapolis.....	+7	+8	+2	+2	+1.9	+6	+8
St. Louis.....	+1.5	+3.2	+1	0	0	+1.0	+6
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	+1.8	+4.5	+9	-1	-2	+3	-2
Baltimore.....	+2.6	+5.9	-1	-1	-1	+1	+5
Jacksonville.....	+2.9	+3.9	+1.0	-1	+1	+1	+5.1
Norfolk.....	+2.2	+5.0	+4	-3	-2	+5	+2
Richmond.....	+1.2	+2.8	-6	0	0	+3	+6
Savannah.....	+3.2	+6.0	+4	0	0	+1	+3.3
Washington, D. C.....	+2.1	+4.2	+7	0	-3	+1	+2.0
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+2.9	+5.3	+1.0	+5	+2.0	+1.5	+2.2
Memphis.....	+1.1	+2.4	+9	+1	-2	+3	+3
Mobile.....	+1.8	+2.9	-2	-8	+8.8	0	+9
West South Central:							
Houston.....	-2	-1.9	0	0	+7	+3	+2.2
New Orleans.....	-4	-7	-4	-1	-3	0	+2
Mountain:							
Denver.....	+1.4	+2.8	-4	-1	4	+1	+1.4
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+1.4	+2.8	-1	+1	0	+3	+9
Portland, Oreg.....	+1.6	+2.4	+5	+2	+1	+9	+2.0
San Francisco.....	+2.1	+4.2	-5	0	0	0	+1.1
Seattle.....	+9	+1.3	-3	+5	+5	+8	+9

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.² Based on data for 56 cities.³ Indexes for March revised: All items 120.7; food 134.2.⁴ Index for March revised: 105.6.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, by Groups, April, May, and June 1943

[Some indexes for April and May revised]

City and date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: Large cities:							
Apr. 15.....	124.1	² 140.6	127.9	108.0	107.5	124.8	114.9
May 15.....	125.1	² 143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1	115.3
June 15.....	124.8	² 141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7
Atlanta:							
Apr. 15.....	(³)	140.3	(³)	(³)	113.1	(³)	(³)
May 15.....	(³)	142.9	(³)	(³)	112.5	(³)	(³)
June 15.....	125.2	143.9	128.5	106.4	112.5	120.3	117.1
Baltimore:							
Apr. 15.....	126.7	148.6	127.8	106.8	106.8	128.9	114.4
May 15.....	128.2	152.6	127.4	106.8	106.8	128.9	114.4
June 15.....	128.1	152.5	127.4	106.7	106.7	129.0	114.3
Birmingham:							
Apr. 15.....	125.5	141.0	128.3	121.6	101.1	120.8	114.8
May 15.....	125.8	140.7	129.2	121.8	101.7	121.3	115.5
June 15.....	126.4	141.9	129.3	121.8	102.4	121.8	115.9
Boston:							
Apr. 15.....	121.8	137.1	123.5	104.9	118.3	119.8	111.4
May 15.....	122.3	138.1	123.6	104.9	118.4	119.5	111.8
June 15.....	121.8	136.8	123.3	104.9	118.4	119.8	112.2
Buffalo:							
Apr. 15.....	127.4	144.0	128.0	114.6	105.0	126.5	121.4
May 15.....	128.8	147.8	127.5	114.6	105.0	126.5	121.8
June 15.....	127.8	145.2	127.6	114.6	104.8	126.6	121.6
Chicago:							
Apr. 15.....	123.5	138.6	123.7	114.5	103.2	120.2	113.6
May 15.....	124.5	141.1	123.5	114.5	103.2	120.3	113.7
June 15.....	124.1	140.0	123.7	114.5	103.2	120.4	113.8
Cincinnati:							
Apr. 15.....	123.4	138.2	132.8	105.1	103.9	126.9	114.5
May 15.....	123.8	138.3	132.9	105.1	103.9	128.4	116.1
June 15.....	124.3	139.2	132.6	105.1	103.8	128.6	116.8
Cleveland:							
Apr. 15.....	126.2	141.4	131.0	115.3	113.7	125.0	114.9
May 15.....	128.0	146.3	131.0	115.3	113.7	125.0	115.0
June 15.....	129.2	149.5	130.8	115.4	113.5	125.1	115.3
Denver:							
Apr. 15.....	122.5	139.0	124.7	109.1	100.1	121.8	114.5
May 15.....	124.4	143.8	124.0	109.1	100.1	121.8	115.5
June 15.....	123.5	141.0	124.2	109.0	99.7	121.9	116.1
Detroit:							
Apr. 15.....	125.0	137.4	129.3	114.3	108.9	122.4	120.7
May 15.....	127.3	143.4	129.2	114.3	108.9	122.7	121.3
June 15.....	126.8	141.6	129.3	114.4	108.8	123.0	122.0
Houston:							
Apr. 15.....	124.0	143.4	129.7	109.0	92.2	122.4	116.5
May 15.....	124.4	143.7	130.2	109.1	92.2	122.6	117.4
June 15.....	123.2	140.0	129.4	109.0	92.8	122.8	118.0
Indianapolis:							
Apr. 15.....	(³)	138.0	(³)	(³)	108.3	(³)	(³)
May 15.....	(³)	140.2	(³)	(³)	108.3	(³)	(³)
June 15.....	126.2	140.3	128.5	115.6	110.4	129.4	118.2
Jacksonville:							
Apr. 15.....	(³)	153.4	(³)	(³)	112.1	(³)	(³)
May 15.....	(³)	151.5	(³)	(³)	112.1	(³)	(³)
June 15.....	130.7	151.7	127.8	112.1	112.1	125.8	122.6
Kansas City:							
Apr. 15.....	122.2	137.4	125.4	108.5	107.9	118.5	116.1
May 15.....	122.5	137.9	125.2	108.6	107.9	119.2	116.7
June 15.....	121.9	136.0	125.4	108.7	107.9	120.3	116.7
Los Angeles:							
Apr. 15.....	125.9	146.2	129.8	109.9	94.2	119.1	116.2
May 15.....	125.8	146.2	129.3	109.9	94.2	119.2	116.2
June 15.....	126.3	146.8	129.6	110.0	94.2	119.3	117.2
Manchester:							
Apr. 15.....	(³)	139.2	(³)	(³)	123.5	(³)	(³)
May 15.....	(³)	142.3	(³)	(³)	123.5	(³)	(³)
June 15.....	128.5	143.4	130.4	107.6	123.5	122.6	114.0
Memphis:							
Apr. 15.....	(³)	149.2	(³)	(³)	104.4	(³)	(³)
May 15.....	(³)	150.1	(³)	(³)	104.4	(³)	(³)
June 15.....	127.0	148.3	136.5	115.6	104.2	124.7	111.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of Living in Large Cities, by Groups, April, May, and June 1943—Continued

[Some indexes for April and May revised]

City and date	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Milwaukee:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	137.4	(3)	(3)	104.6	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	141.9	(3)	(3)	106.7	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	122.7	138.7	124.6	108.2	106.6	124.6	115.0
Minneapolis:							
Apr. 15.....	121.0	133.5	127.7	109.9	100.0	125.2	116.2
May 15.....	121.8	134.9	127.1	109.9	101.5	125.5	117.2
June 15.....	121.9	134.1	127.7	110.0	101.9	125.8	118.2
Mobile:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	150.5	(3)	(3)	103.4	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	149.9	(3)	(3)	103.4	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	128.3	149.8	127.7	113.6	112.5	121.4	115.5
New Orleans:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	160.7	(3)	(3)	96.3	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	152.5	(3)	(3)	96.3	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	129.6	152.2	132.7	107.0	96.0	127.4	114.0
New York:							
Apr. 15.....	122.8	139.9	127.5	103.2	110.6	118.5	113.3
May 15.....	124.2	143.3	127.8	103.2	110.4	118.6	113.6
June 15.....	123.8	141.4	128.0	103.3	110.7	119.0	115.0
Norfolk:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	152.0	(3)	(3)	116.2	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	153.3	(3)	(3)	116.2	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	131.4	151.7	132.6	108.6	116.0	129.1	123.7
Philadelphia:							
Apr. 15.....	124.3	140.5	127.6	106.7	105.9	123.0	114.7
May 15.....	124.8	141.6	127.7	106.7	105.9	123.4	114.8
June 15.....	123.8	139.2	127.5	106.7	105.8	123.9	114.8
Pittsburgh:							
Apr. 15.....	123.7	139.4	130.8	107.3	110.3	122.8	114.2
May 15.....	124.9	142.4	131.2	107.3	110.3	123.1	114.3
June 15.....	124.9	142.3	131.5	107.3	110.3	123.6	114.2
Portland, Maine:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	137.3	(3)	(3)	117.0	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	140.3	(3)	(3)	117.0	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	124.5	140.6	125.7	106.4	116.9	121.1	117.4
Portland, Oreg.:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	150.3	(3)	(3)	116.5	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	153.6	(3)	(3)	116.5	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	130.7	152.1	129.5	115.4	116.5	122.9	118.7
Richmond:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	142.4	(3)	(3)	106.5	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	141.5	(3)	(3)	106.5	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	122.6	139.6	132.0	103.9	106.5	127.7	113.1
St. Louis:							
Apr. 15.....	123.1	142.4	128.8	106.1	106.2	116.6	111.7
May 15.....	124.0	144.7	128.8	106.2	106.2	117.5	111.8
June 15.....	123.6	143.3	128.9	106.1	106.2	117.6	112.3
San Francisco:							
Apr. 15.....	128.5	149.7	128.1	106.0	92.2	119.0	122.4
May 15.....	128.1	148.0	127.3	106.0	92.2	119.0	123.7
June 15.....	128.7	149.8	127.5	106.0	92.2	119.0	123.2
Savannah:							
Apr. 15.....	131.2	152.5	130.3	114.9	113.1	121.4	119.7
May 15.....	131.9	153.8	130.5	114.9	113.1	121.4	120.6
June 15.....	132.3	153.8	130.6	114.9	113.1	121.5	122.6
Scranton:							
Apr. 15.....	(3)	143.3	(3)	(3)	103.9	(3)	(3)
May 15.....	(3)	148.3	(3)	(3)	103.9	(3)	(3)
June 15.....	123.6	144.4	128.6	97.3	103.9	123.9	110.2
Seattle:							
Apr. 15.....	127.9	145.9	131.0	110.2	101.9	120.1	123.1
May 15.....	129.5	150.3	131.0	110.2	101.9	120.4	123.1
June 15.....	128.1	146.6	130.4	110.6	101.9	120.8	122.8
Washington, D. C.:							
Apr. 15.....	122.5	139.9	135.0	100.3	105.6	131.4	118.6
May 15.....	123.7	142.5	134.7	100.3	105.7	131.3	120.3
June 15.....	123.8	142.7	135.5	100.3	105.3	131.5	120.2

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.² Based on data for 56 cities.³ Monthly data not available.

TABLE 7.—Indexes of Cost of Living¹ in Large Cities, 1935 to June 1943

Year	Indexes ¹ (1935-39=100) of cost of—						
	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7
1940.....	100.2	96.6	101.7	104.6	99.7	100.5	101.1
1941.....	105.2	105.5	106.3	106.2	102.2	107.3	104.0
1942.....	116.5	123.9	124.2	108.5	105.4	122.2	110.9
1943:							
Jan. 15.....	120.7	133.0	126.0	108.0	107.3	123.8	113.2
Feb. 15.....	121.0	133.6	126.2	108.0	107.2	124.1	113.6
Mar. 15.....	122.8	137.4	127.6	108.0	107.4	124.5	114.5
Apr. 15.....	124.1	140.6	127.9	108.0	107.5	124.8	114.9
May 15.....	125.1	143.0	127.9	108.0	107.6	125.1	115.3
June 15.....	124.8	141.9	127.9	108.0	107.7	125.4	115.7

¹ Based on changes in cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in large cities.

Labor Laws and Decisions

War Labor Disputes Act

THE Smith-Connally Act,¹ or War Labor Disputes Act, became a law on June 25, 1943, when the House of Representatives and the Senate passed the bill over the President's veto. The act will have far-reaching effects in the fields of labor relations and war production. This article gives a general survey and digest of its principal features.

The act amends the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 so as to give the President specific power to take possession of and to use and operate plants, mines, and facilities when he finds and proclaims that there is a threatened or actual interruption of the operation of such plant, mine, or facility because of a strike or other labor disturbance, as a result of which the war effort will be unduly impeded or delayed. It is specifically provided that such plants, mines, or facilities so taken over shall be returned to their owners "as soon as practicable" but in no event more than 60 days after the restoration of the productive efficiency which prevailed before seizure. The authority to take over plants, mines, and facilities is not to be exercised after the termination of hostilities or of the War Labor Disputes Act, and the authority to operate such establishments and facilities is to end 6 months after the termination of hostilities.

Establishments and facilities taken over by the President are to be operated under the terms and conditions of employment in effect at the time such action was taken. The Government agency operating any such establishment, or a majority of the employees or their representatives, may apply to the National War Labor Board for a change in wages or conditions of employment. That Board is authorized to order any changes in wages or other terms or conditions of employment which it deems to be fair and reasonable and not in conflict with law.

It is an offense punishable by fine of not more than \$5,000, or imprisonment for not more than 1 year, or both, to "coerce, instigate, induce, conspire with, or encourage any person, to interfere, by lockout, strike, slowdown, or other interruption, with the operation of such plant, mine, or facility" taken over by the President, or to aid any such action interfering with the operation of such an establishment or facility "by giving direction or guidance in the conduct of such interruption, or by providing funds for the conduct or direction thereof or for the payment of strike, unemployment, or other benefits to those participating therein."

The National War Labor Board is given statutory status. When the United States Conciliation Service certifies that a labor dispute "may lead to substantial interference with the war effort, and cannot

¹ Public Law 89, ch. 144, 78th Cong., 1st sess.

be settled by collective bargaining or conciliation," the Board shall have the power to summon both parties to the dispute before it and conduct a public hearing on its merits. The Board may also take action on its own motion. The failure of the parties to appear at a Board hearing shall not deprive it of jurisdiction to proceed to a hearing and to issue an order. The Board is specifically authorized to decide such labor disputes and to provide by order the wages and hours and all other terms and conditions governing the relations between the parties. In making such decisions the Board is required to conform to the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act, the National Labor Relations Act, the Emergency Price Control Act of 1942, as amended, and the act of October 2, 1942, as amended. The Board is authorized to issue subpoenas, to require the attendance of witnesses, and the production of papers, documents, and records which may be material to its investigation of facts in any labor dispute and to apply to any Federal district court for an order requiring obedience to such subpoenas. No member of the Board shall be permitted to participate in any decision in which he has a direct interest as an official, employee, or representative of either party to the dispute.

In order that the President may be apprised of labor disputes which threaten seriously to interrupt war production and in order "that employees may have an opportunity to express themselves, free from restraint or coercion, as to whether they will permit such interruption in wartime," the representatives of the employees of a war contractor² shall give the Secretary of Labor, the National Labor Relations Board, and the National War Labor Board notice of any such labor dispute involving the contractor and the employees, together with a statement of the issues giving rise to the dispute. For not less than 30 days after such notice is given the contractor and his employees shall continue production under all the conditions which prevailed when such dispute arose. On the thirtieth day after notice is given by the representatives of the employees, unless the dispute has been settled, the National Labor Relations Board shall forthwith take a secret ballot of the employees on the question of whether they shall permit any such interruption of war production. The results of the balloting are to be open to public inspection. (The above procedure does not apply to a plant, mine, or facility of which possession has been taken by the United States.) Violation subjects a person to liability for damages to any person injured and to the United States, if injured. Jurisdiction is conferred upon the district courts of the United States to hear and determine proceedings instituted under this section.

The Federal Corrupt Practices Act is amended to make it unlawful for any labor organization to make a contribution in connection with any election at which Presidential and Vice Presidential electors or a Senator or Representative in, or a Delegate or Resident Commissioner to Congress are to be voted for. Organizations which violate this law are subject to fine in a sum of not more than \$5,000, and every

² Defined in section 2 (c) of the act as a "person producing, manufacturing, constructing, reconstructing, installing, maintaining, storing, repairing, mining, or transporting under a war contract [defined by sec. in 2 (b)] or a person whose plant, mine, or facility is equipped for the manufacture, production, or mining of any articles or materials which may be required in the prosecution of the war or which may be useful in connection therewith" (the term does not include carriers defined in Title I and Title II of the Railway Labor Act).

officer of a labor organization who consents to any contribution by the organization in violation of the section shall be fined not more than \$1,000, or imprisoned for not more than 1 year, or both.

The act shall cease to be effective 6 months following the termination of hostilities, as proclaimed by the President, or upon the date of the passage of a concurrent resolution, to that effect, of the two Houses of Congress.

Law Protecting Post-War Job Rights of Merchant-Marine Personnel

AN ACT of Congress approved June 23, 1943, provided reemployment rights for persons who have left their civilian positions to serve in the merchant marine.¹ The law states that such individuals are entitled to reemployment in their former civilian positions after the termination of the present emergency. They are to be considered as having been on furlough or leave of absence during their period of service, and are to be restored to their previous positions (or ones of like seniority, status, and pay) without loss of seniority. Likewise, such a person shall be entitled to participate in insurance or other benefits offered by the employer pursuant to established rules and practices relating to employees on furlough or leave of absence in effect with the employer at the time the worker entered such service. The employee returning from service with the merchant marine is not to be discharged from such civilian position without reasonable cause within 1 year after such restoration.

The War Shipping Administrator is authorized to make rules and regulations for carrying out the provisions of the act.

Recent Decisions of Interest to Labor²

Fair Labor Standards Act

SUABILITY of union as "employer" under Wage-Hour Act.—In *Williams v. United Mine Workers of America, etc.*,³ an employee seeking to recover unpaid overtime compensation, liquidated damages, and attorney's fees under section 16 (b) of the act, sought to review, in the Kentucky Court of Appeals, an unfavorable decision by a lower court. The defendant labor union contended that it was not the employer of the plaintiff, that as a voluntary association it was not suable under Kentucky law, and that the defendant had no cause of action. The lower court sustained this position and the petition was dismissed.

¹ Public Law 87, ch. 142, 78th Cong., 1st sess.

² Prepared in the Office of the Solicitor, Department of Labor. The cases covered in this article represent a selection of significant decisions believed to be of special interest. No attempt has been made to reflect all recent judicial and administrative developments in the field of labor law nor to indicate the effect of particular decisions in jurisdictions in which contrary results may be reached based upon local statutory provisions, the existence of local precedents, or a different approach by the courts to the issue presented.

³—S. W. (2d) — (June 1, 1943). Complete citations not available.

The appellate court in reversing the lower court found that the plaintiff, as a check weighman paid from union funds, was employed by the union and that a labor organization could be sued as an "employer" within the meaning of section 3 (d) of the act.³

It was recognized that in many jurisdictions it had been held that an unincorporated labor organization could not be sued in its own name in the absence of a statute so providing, because such organizations lack many of the characteristics of a legal entity. The court's decision that the union was suable was based upon the language of the Fair Labor Standards Act,⁴ the Federal rule permitting unincorporated labor unions to be sued in their own names when a statute dealing with the rights and privileges of a union or its members is concerned,⁵ and rule 17(b) of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure.⁶

Defense of estoppel operative against employee-plaintiff who falsified records.—Suit was brought under section 16 (b) of the act by an employee, for himself and others similarly situated, to recover unpaid overtime and liquidated damages.⁷ One of the defenses of the company was that the employee in whose name the action was brought had submitted to it false time sheets of the hours worked by the employees. Since the employee who was guilty of falsifying the records was suing as representative of other claimants, the company contended that his lack of "clean hands" disqualified, in turn, the other employees. The court ruled that the falsification of the records was unknown to the other employees, and although the doctrine of estoppel operated against the guilty party, it did not apply to those who had no knowledge of his acts.

It was also held, with reference to another employee, that the fact that he was an enemy alien did not preclude him from sharing in the benefits of the act.

Employee suit in State court not removable to Federal District Court.—It was held in *Fredman v. Foley Bros., Inc.*,⁸ that an employee suit to recover more than \$3,000 in unpaid wages and liquidated damages under section 16 (b) of the Fair Labor Standard Act⁹ could not be removed from a State to a Federal court.

The district court relied on *Booth v. Montgomery Ward & Co.* (44 Fed. Supp. 451), holding that the language of the act, that a suit "may be maintained in any court of competent jurisdiction," meant that a suit may be instituted and carried through to final judgment.

³ Section 3 (d) of the act reads: "'Employer' includes any person acting directly or indirectly in the interest of an employer in relation to an employee but shall not include the United States or any State or political subdivision of a State, or any labor organization (other than when acting as an employer), or any one acting in the capacity of officer or agent of such labor organization."

⁴ Section 3 (a) defines "person" as "an individual, partnership, association, corporation, business trust, legal representative, or any organized group of persons." See also *Bowe v. Judson* — Fed. (2d) — (May 6, 1943), discussed in Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, and *Meek et al. v. United States*, — Fed. (2d) — (June 22, 1943).

⁵ *United Mine Workers of America v. Coronado Coal Co.*, 259 U. S. 344.

⁶ 28 U. S. C. A., following section 723 (c), "a partnership or other unincorporated association, which has no such capacity by the law of such State, may sue or be sued in its common name for the purpose of enforcing for or against it a substantive right existing under the Constitution or laws of the United States."

⁷ *Deutsch, et. v. Heywood-Wakefield Co.*, — Fed. Supp. — (U. S. D. C., S. D. N. Y., May 7, 1943).

⁸ — Fed. Supp. — (U. S. D. C., W. Mo., May 28, 1943).

⁹ Section 16(b) provides as follows: "Any employer who violates the provisions of section 6 or section 7 of this act shall be liable to the employee or employees affected in the amount of their unpaid minimum wages, or their unpaid overtime compensation, as the case may be, and in an additional equal amount as liquidated damages. Action to recover such liability may be maintained in any court of competent jurisdiction by any one or more employees for and in behalf of himself or themselves and other employees similarly situated, or such employee or employees may designate an agent or representative to maintain such action for and in behalf of all employees similarly situated. The court in such action shall, in addition to any judgment awarded to the plaintiff or plaintiffs, allow a reasonable attorney's fee to be paid by the defendant, and costs of the action."

It rejected the defendant's contention that such an interpretation would necessarily mean that a judgment could never be appealed.

The court took the position that "maintained in any court of competent jurisdiction" means Federal courts and State courts. Further, the provision was intended to protect the interests of employees, and the interests of the employees are best served, in this instance, if they may begin suit in a State court and "maintain it there until judgment."

Application of Victory Tax to wage and salary payments received after January 1, 1943.—The Bureau of Internal Revenue ruled that back wages received as restitution under the Fair Labor Standards Act for work performed prior to January 1, 1943, are subject to the Victory Tax deduction. This is true despite the fact that the wages may be payments which were due for pay-roll periods previous to that date.¹⁰ However, exceptions are made where the restitution was authorized "by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division * * * and accepted by the employer, or under a final decision of a court, prior to January 1, 1943." This reverses the Bureau's earlier ruling with reference to delayed payments.¹¹

The Bureau takes the position, however, that back payments due under the National Labor Relations Act do not constitute "wages" within the meaning of the revenue statute and they are, therefore, not subject to the withholding tax.

National Labor Relations Act

Insurance company subject to National Labor Relations Act.—The Seventh Circuit Court of Appeals held that a fraternal benefit non-profit corporation which issued insurance benefits to its members was engaged in interstate commerce and was, therefore, subject to the National Labor Relations Act. (*Polish National Alliance of U. S. of North America v. National Labor Relations Board* — Fed. (2d) — (June 5, 1943).)

The court distinguished cases holding that the issuance of a policy of insurance does not constitute a transaction in commerce,¹² on the ground that they involved the power of the State to tax or regulate and not the scope of Federal power under the commerce clause of the Federal Constitution. Quoting from *Binderup v. Pathe Exchange* (263 U. S. 291, 311), the court stated, "It does not follow that because a thing is subject to State taxation, it is also immune from Federal regulation under the commerce clause."¹³ The activities of the fraternal benefit association were compared to those of the Associated Press in *Associated Press v. National Labor Relations Board* (301 U. S. 103), and the conclusion was reached that since the business was carried on through the channels of interstate communication, it constituted interstate commerce and was within the power of Congress to regulate. The court observed that since the National Labor Relations Act applied to practices "affecting commerce,"¹⁴ even if the

¹⁰ IT:TM (IT-Mimeograph: Coll. No. 5530; R. A. No. 1292) (June 21, 1943).

¹¹ Press release No. 35-11 (Jan. 23, 1943).

¹² *Paul v. Virginia*, 75 U. S. 168; *Hooper v. California*, 155 U. S. 648; *New York Life Insurance Co. v. Cravens*, 178 U. S. 389; *New York Life Insurance Co. v. Deer Lodge County*, 231 U. S. 495.

¹³ *Accord Swift & Co. v. United States*, 196 U. S. 375, 400; *Chicago Board of Trade v. Olsen*, 262 U. S. 1, 33; *Wickard v. Filburn*, 317 U. S. 111.

¹⁴ Section 2 (7) defining "affecting commerce" as "commerce, or burdening or obstructing commerce or the free flow of commerce, or having led or tendency to lead to a labor dispute burdening or obstructing commerce or the free flow of commerce."

business of the company did not constitute interstate commerce, a labor dispute between it and its employees would meet the coverage standards of the act.

With respect to the interests of one employee, the court modified the Board's order requiring that the employees' reinstatement should run from the date of their application for reinstatement. The facts showed that the union was on strike from October 7, 1941, to January 27, 1942. An employee, one Ziolkowski, had applied for a return to work on October 10, 1941, and was told that he must apply "as a new applicant for work." The employee refused to accept this condition, believing it would mean the loss of his seniority rights. The Board found that this conditional offer of employment constituted discrimination against the employee and the court accepted this finding. The Board then ordered reinstatement and back pay for all employees, including Ziolkowski, as of January 27, 1942, the date the other strikers reapplied for work. With reference to Ziolkowski the Board reasoned (one Board member dissenting) that it would be inequitable to treat him differently from the other employees and that when his October 10 application for work was refused he was in the same position as the other strikers.

The court, however, ordered that Ziolkowski should be reinstated as of October 10, 1941, and quoted the following language from the opinion of the dissenting Board member: "The policy of the act would, in my opinion, be best served by encouraging those who have gone out on strike because of their employer's unfair labor practices to return to work and to avail themselves of the administrative remedy which the act affords them and we should do nothing to deter any individual striker from such action. The effect of the majority's decision would, it seems to me, be to prolong unfair-labor-practice strikes and to discourage employees from recourse to the adequate relief available to them under the act."

Vendors of newspapers not employees of newspaper company.—The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals (one judge dissenting) applied the common-law tests for the employer-employee relationship to set aside an order of the Board in *Hearst Publications, Inc. v. National Labor Relations Board*.¹⁵

The newspaper companies contended that they need not bargain with the news vendors' union because the vendors were not "employees" within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act. The court determined that since the act did not define "employee,"¹⁶ that term should be given "its conventional meaning as developed under the common law and statutory enactments." It refused to accept the administrative interpretation of the term promulgated by the Board on the ground that the construction of "employee" is a judicial rather than an administrative function. The court proceeded to analyze the facts in the light of the "control test." It noted that if some papers were lost or stolen, the news vendor took the loss "like

¹⁵ — Fed. (2d) — (June 10, 1943); also *Stockholders Pub. Co. v. Same*; *Hearst Publications, Inc., v. Same*; *The Times-Mirror Co. v. Same*.

¹⁶ National Labor Relations Act, section 2 (3) (29 U. S. C. A., section 152 (3)) states: "The term 'employee' shall include any employee, and shall not be limited to the employees of a particular employer, unless the chapter explicitly states otherwise, and shall include any individual whose work has ceased as a consequence of, or in connection with, any current labor dispute or because of any unfair labor practice, and who has not obtained any other regular and substantially equivalent employment, but shall not include any individual employee as an agricultural laborer, or in the domestic service of any family or person at his home, or any individual employed by his parent or spouse."

any independent merchant." Further, the vendors also sold other and competing newspapers. They often bought and sold valuable corners without the knowledge of the newspaper publishers. The court did not consider as strong evidence of control the fact that wholesale and retail prices of the newspapers were fixed by the publishers and that the news vendors' profits consisted of the difference between the price paid to the publisher and the price paid by the public. This price fixing by the publisher was compared to the price fixing of a manufacturer who consigns merchandise to a storekeeper for retail sale.

Appropriate bargaining unit composed of instructors.—Distinguishing the limits of its decision in *Maryland Drydock Co.*,¹⁷ which held that supervisory employees did not constitute appropriate bargaining units under the Wagner Act, the Board held that instructors in the plant receiving 15 to 20 percent higher wages than other production employees were not in a supervisory category. The instructors did not have authority to hire or fire or recommend such action, nor would any other indicia of the employment relationship set them apart as supervisors.¹⁸

A similar result was reached in respect of armed guards who, among their other duties, prepared reports on the activities of employees.¹⁹ It was found that although these reports might furnish the basis for the discharge of employees, the guards did not truly exercise discretionary and supervisory functions.

Back pay awarded employees discriminatorily transferred.—In the case, *In re Waples-Platter Co.*,²⁰ the National Labor Relations Board held that the transfer to new positions of two active union organizers constituted an unfair labor practice under section 8(3) of the National Labor Relations Act.²¹ The transfers were found to have been ordered for the purpose of segregating union leaders and preventing further union activity. As the union members had left their employment and had not accepted the proffered jobs, the Board (one member dissenting) ordered their reinstatement and back pay from the date of their refusal to work.

War Labor Board

Injunctive relief against War Labor Board order denied.—A street-railway company sued in the United States District Court for the District of Maryland, naming the United States Attorney and the district manager of the Office of Defense Transportation in their official capacities as defendants, to prevent their enforcement against it of two War Labor Board orders.²² The first order of the Board directed the company to recognize a certain union as the bargaining representative for its employees, directed the establishment of griev-

¹⁷ 12 Labor Relations Reporter 439, 49 N. L. R. B. No. 105. Discussed in Monthly Labor Review, July 1943.

¹⁸ United Wall Paper Factories, Inc., 49 N. L. R. B. No. 199, 12 Labor Relations Reporter 644.

¹⁹ Federal Motor Truck Co., 50 N. L. R. B. No. 36, 12 Labor Relations Reporter 645. See also Aluminum Co. of America, 50 N. L. R. B. No. 40, 12 Labor Relations Reporter 645.

²⁰ *In re Waples-Platter Co.* (Fort Worth, Tex.) and Warehouse and Distribution Workers Union, Local No. 220 (CIO); *In re Same* and District 50, United Mine Workers of America; *In re Same* and Warehouse and Distribution Workers Union, Local No. 220 (CIO). Cases Nos. C-2509-10, R-4358 (May 21, 1943), 49 N. L. R. B. No. 169.

²¹ 29 U. S. C. A., sec. 158, "It shall be an unfair labor practice for an employer . . . (3) By discrimination in regard to hire or tenure of employment or any term or condition of employment to encourage or discourage membership in any labor organization . . ."

²² *Baltimore Transit Co. v. Flynn and Knell*, — Fed. Supp. — (May 17, 1943).

ance procedures, and provided for the appointment of a permanent arbitrator to hear and determine grievances. The second order of the Board directed compliance with an award of an arbitrator.

The court held that the action could not be maintained against the two Government officials, since only the President of the United States has authority to enforce orders of the Board. Although the President, acting through the Office of Defense Transportation, could seize the property of the company, he has not authorized such action. The court concluded that "equitable relief can never lie against persons to prevent them from doing that which they have never threatened to do and have no power to do."

The court, in defining its powers, pointed out that the relief sought by the company was outside its jurisdiction. The bill of complaint had asked that a temporary restraining order and, ultimately, a permanent injunction "be made applicable to all who may be, or come into this district for the purpose of attempting to enforce" the Board's orders, or to "penalize plaintiff for refusal to comply therewith." It was stated that the court could not enjoin the world at large, since its jurisdiction was limited to those over whom it obtains personal service. It was added that if the bill were intended as a suit against any Government officer who came into the district to enforce the Board's orders, it must be construed as a suit against the United States, and that such action would not lie because the United States could not be sued without its consent.

The court also refused to grant a declaratory judgment holding the order of the War Labor Board void, on the ground that there was no case or controversy between the parties.

Railway Labor Act

Award of Railroad Adjustment Board incontestable by employer for 2 years.—In *Washington Terminal Co. v. Boswell*,²³ the United States Supreme Court, by an equally divided vote, affirmed a judgment of a Circuit Court of Appeals²⁴ dismissing an employer's suit for a declaratory judgment interpreting its contract with its employees. The circuit court held that awards of the Railroad Adjustment Board under the Railway Labor Act²⁵ could not be attacked by an employer for 2 years. The purpose of Congress in enacting the legislation, it was observed, was to benefit employees by extending to them a period of 2 years in which to bring suit to enforce the Board's awards. Permitting the employer to take the initiative within that period was viewed as inconsistent with that purpose.

Social Security Act

The Bureau of Internal Revenue has ruled that services performed by an employee on a farm, *in the employ of any person*, in connection with the cultivation of the soil, raising and harvesting of crops, or the raising, feeding, or management of livestock, bees, and poultry, constitute "agricultural labor" exempt from the coverage of titles VIII and IX of the Social Security Act, which levy taxes in connection with the old-age insurance and unemployment-compensation

²³ — Sup. Ct. — (June 14, 1943).

²⁴ 124 Fed. (2d) 234.

²⁵ 45 U. S. C. A., sec. 151, et seq., and 153, First (p), (q).

programs, respectively.²⁶ The Board had previously ruled that this exemption applied only where the services were performed on a farm by an employee "of the tenant thereof, or of the owner of such farm."²⁷ That ruling was reversed in the light of Federal court decisions which held that the controlling factor was the nature of the work performed on the farm and not the status of the individual for whom the services were performed.²⁸

Decisions of State Courts

Noninterference by court in internal administration of union affairs.—The Supreme Court of Florida, in *Harper et al. v. Hoecherl*, reversed a decree of a lower court granting an injunction at the request of a Government contractor, prohibiting a union from imposing fines on members using spray guns instead of paint brushes.²⁹

The plaintiff had filed a bid and received a contract to paint certain United States buildings on an Army project. After filing the bid he entered into an agreement with a union with which he had had dealings for several years. In the union contract was a stipulation that spray guns could be used on the work only with the consent of the union. The union bylaws, enforceable by a fine levied on the offending members, prohibited members from using spray-painting apparatus.

Prior to the filing of his bid, the contractor had received notice from the Government that brush bristles were scarce and that, wherever practicable, spray guns should be used. The Government contract provided that either method of painting was acceptable. The bid, however, was submitted on the basis of the cost of spray-gun labor. After the work on the Government project had been begun, the Army officer in charge of construction directed the use of spray guns. The union, when requested by the contractor to permit its members to use spray equipment, voted contrary to his request. Conferences between the parties involved failed to bring about any settlement of the issue. The contractor then made separate agreements with two union members to perform the work with spray guns, promising to pay any fines which the union levied against them. Before the union assessed any fines, he sought a temporary injunction, which was later made permanent, restraining the union from levying fines against its members.

The contractor charged that the union was delaying production by refusing to comply with the directions of the Army officer. The court, however, was unable to find evidence that the work was being impeded, and it also noted that no action had as yet been taken by the union which would so impair the plaintiff's rights as to give him a basis for equitable relief. It indicated also that if the contractor desired to use spray guns, he could avail himself of nonunion labor.

The principal point decided was that the internal administration of union affairs rested with the union and its members, and that, in the ordinary case, the courts will not intervene in such disputes. Membership in a union is not compulsory, and since a member agrees

²⁶ Em. T. 443; I. R. B. 1943-10-11436 (May 25, 1943).

²⁷ S. S. T. 125 (C. B. 1937-1, 397).

²⁸ *Stuart v. Kleck* (1942), 129 Fed. (2d) 400; *Chester C. Fosgate Co. v. United States* (1942), 125 Fed (2d) 775, certiorari denied, 63 Sup. Ct. 31 (Oct. 12, 1942).

²⁹ 14 S. (2d) 179 (May 21, 1943).

to the rules when accepting membership, the courts have usually refrained from entering into internal disputes "unless such rules and bylaws, or the methods resorted to for enforcement, are unreasonable, immoral, contrary to public policy, or in contravention of the law of the land." Likewise, a third party who may be injured by punitive action which a union may wish to take against a member for violation of union rules normally has no standing in court to seek an injunction against sanctions which the union is authorized to impose.

Effect of subsequent court decisions on continuing injunction.—A union in New Jersey filed a petition in equity to terminate an injunction which had been issued to restrain peaceful picketing,³⁰ at a time when it was lawful to enjoin such activity. Vacation of the decree was sought on the ground that since its issuance the United States Supreme Court had ruled that peaceful picketing may not be restrained.³¹ Further, New Jersey had since passed a law (Acts of 1941, ch. 15) prohibiting such injunctions.

In dismissing the petition, the court pointed out that the proceeding was in effect a bill of review and brought after the expiration of the period in which an appeal could be taken. Only the presentation of newly discovered evidence or some special equity will give the court power to review the original proceeding. The court stated that newly discovered evidence had not been presented so as to authorize it to exercise its discretion to vacate the decree.³² It also held that it did not consider new matter to have been presented by the judicial decisions which changed the state of the law.

³⁰ *Hersh & Hershkowitz v. United Retail Employees of Newark, N. J., Local No. 103*, — N. J. Ch. Ct. — (May 10, 1943).

³¹ *Carlson v. California*, 310 U. S. 106; *Cantwell v. Connecticut*, 310 U. S. 296; *Thornhill v. Alabama*, 310 U. S. 88; *A. F. of L. v. Swing*, 312 U. S. 321.

³² Cf. *United States v. Swift & Co.*, 286 U. S. 106; *John Simmon Co. v. Grier Bros. Co.*, 258 U. S. 82; *Abercrombie & Fitch Co. v. Baldwin*, 245 U. S. 198; *Utah Power & Light Co. v. United States*, 242 Fed. 924.

Wage and Hour Statistics

Earnings in Ship-Construction Yards, Fall of 1942¹

Summary

THE level of earnings of shipbuilding workers, partly because of the nature of shipbuilding employment, is among the highest found in American industry. In November 1942, first-shift workers in private yards engaged wholly or primarily in new ship construction had average hourly earnings of \$1.044, exclusive of premium pay for overtime. Within the industry, the highest level of earnings, \$1.135, was found on the Pacific Coast, the next highest, \$1.048, on the Atlantic Coast, and the lowest, 90.7 cents on the Gulf Coast. The averages for the Great Lakes and Inland regions were but 2 cents apart, 99.4 and 97.4 cents, respectively.

Straight-time hourly earnings, on the basis of data from identical yards, increased by an average of 11 cents between the spring and fall of 1942. Most of this increase was due to the wage adjustments made in the four wage-stabilization agreements concluded at the National Shipbuilding Conference in May 1942. In addition to establishing a uniform minimum rate of \$1.20 for first-class skilled mechanics in all four regions, thereby eliminating the 5-cent differential formerly existing in the Gulf region, the conference also granted a general increase of 8 cents an hour to all other workers in the Atlantic, Great Lakes, and Pacific regions, together with increases in the Gulf Coast region ranging from 9 cents an hour for workers with rates up to 69.5 cents an hour to 13 cents an hour for workers with rates of \$1.07 an hour and over. These increases became effective between April 1 and August 1 in the various regions. The conference also deleted from the original zone agreements the provision for adjusting wages in accordance with changes in cost of living. Provision was also made for periodic wage reviews, the first of which was to be made about June 1, 1943. Similar reviews are to be made annually thereafter.

Increases in earnings in identical yards over and above those provided for in the stabilization agreements may be attributed largely to the upgrading of workers, and in part to the acceptance of the stabilization program by a greater number of yards.

A sharp increase of more than 16 cents in average hourly earnings between the spring and fall of 1942 in identical yards in the Inland region, which is not subject to the wage-stabilization program, was due largely to general advances in wage rates in this region to levels broadly comparable with those found in the stabilized areas.

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Willis C. Quant under the direction of Victor S. Baril.

Scope and Method of Survey

The present comprehensive study of shipbuilding wages represents the continuation of a series of such studies inaugurated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1936.² The last detailed study of the industry was made during the spring of 1942, shortly before the National Shipbuilding Conference in May of that year, which resulted in broad wage adjustments in the industry. The present survey was made during the fall of 1942 and reflects, therefore, the wage changes provided for under the stabilization agreements which went into effect during the summer of 1942. This study was designed to provide basic data for the appraisal of these wage changes, and to serve the needs of governmental agencies charged with the responsibility of developing the shipbuilding program and stabilizing wages in the industry.

The current survey was limited to privately operated shipyards engaged wholly or primarily in the construction of new vessels of 5 gross tons and over. Yards engaged in the construction of smaller vessels, commonly referred to as boats, and ship-repair yards were excluded from the survey. Some construction yards also do repair work and boat building. Data relating to such activities, however, were excluded, whenever possible, from the scope of the present survey.

The wage data presented in this report are based on pay-roll information for the pay period ending nearest November 15, 1942. Full utilization was made of the pay-roll data submitted semiannually to the Secretary of Labor under the Copeland Act. These data were very carefully analyzed and, where necessary, supplemented by information obtained at the yards by experienced representatives of the Bureau. The field investigations were concerned very largely with the clarifying of occupational classifications and class designations within occupations, indicating first-shift workers, and, in the case of yards having incentive-wage systems, prorating incentive earnings so that these earnings could be reflected in the average straight-time hourly earnings of the workers covered in the survey.

Altogether 86 privately operated shipyards engaged wholly or primarily in the construction of new ships (5 gross tons and over) were surveyed. In the selection of these yards full consideration was given to such factors as type and size of yard, type of craft under construction, geographical location, and corporate affiliation. The sample is believed to be fully representative of private ship-construction yards.

The wage data presented in this report relate only to first (day) shift workers.³ The data for such workers reveal accurately the basic occupational and wage structure of the industry, since practically all occupations are fully represented on the first shift. Furthermore, data for first-shift workers are not distorted by shift differentials. Extra earnings from premium pay for overtime were also eliminated.

² Earnings and Hours in Private Shipyards, 1936 and 1937 (Serial No. R. 788); Earnings and Hours in United States Navy Yards, 1936 (Serial No. R. 809); Earnings and Hours in Private Shipyards and Navy Yards, 1936 and 1937 (Serial No. R. 845); and Hourly Earnings in Private Shipyards, 1942 (Bulletin No. 727). The results of the semiannual surveys made by the Bureau between May 1937 and May 1941 for the use of the United States Maritime Commission have not been published.

³ In a few instances, workers found in important occupations occurring only on the second or third shifts were included in the study. In such cases, however, extra earnings resulting from shift-differential payments were eliminated so that the figures presented for these workers are average straight-time hourly first- or day-shift earnings.

As a result, the average earnings presented in this report are straight-time hourly earnings exclusive of premium overtime and shift-differential earnings.

No attempt was made to cover all occupations found in the shipbuilding industry. Two basic factors were considered in selecting occupations for coverage: (1) The importance of an occupation in terms of number of workers employed, and (2) the strategic importance of an occupation in the occupational structure. The occupational coverage actually obtained is comprehensive in scope, as approximately 90 percent of all first-shift workers in the yards surveyed were employed in the 60 occupations for which data are presented in this report.

Definition of Regions

Shipyards must of necessity be situated either on the coast or along some navigable stream or body of water, because of launching and delivery requirements. The industry today is widely scattered along the three coasts, the Great Lakes, and the inland waterways of the country. Any analysis of wages in as widely scattered an industry as shipbuilding must necessarily be made on a regional rather than an industry-wide basis. For purposes of this study, the regions used are those of the shipbuilding wage-stabilization program, namely, the Atlantic, Gulf, and Pacific Coasts, and the Great Lakes. The remainder of the country, where shipyards do not come within the scope of the stabilization program, will be referred to as the "Inland" region.

The areas covered by the four regions, as defined under the stabilization program, are—

Atlantic Coast: The tidewater ports of the eastern part of the United States from the eastern tip of Maine to, but not including, the northern border of Florida; and also, specifically, the Hudson River inland, to and including the industrial area of Albany, New York, and the Delaware River inland, to and including the industrial areas of Philadelphia, Pa., and Camden, N. J.; the Chesapeake Bay; and the James River inland to and including Richmond, Va.

Gulf Coast: The tidewater ports of the eastern coast of Florida and of the Gulf of Mexico, bounded on the west by the Rio Grande, and also, specifically, the Mississippi River inland, to and including the industrial area of New Orleans, including Lake Pontchartrain; the Houston Ship Channel inland, to and including the industrial area of Houston; and the ship channels of the Neches and Sabine Rivers.

Pacific Coast: The tidewater ports of the western part of the United States from the Mexican border to the Canadian border, and also, specifically, the Sacramento River inland, to and including Sacramento, Calif.; the San Joaquin River, tributary to the Sacramento River, inland to and including Stockton, Calif.; the Columbia River inland, to and including the industrial areas of Portland, Oreg., and Vancouver, Wash.; and the Willamette River, tributary to the Columbia River, inland to and including the industrial area of Portland, Oreg.; and the Puget Sound area.

Great Lakes: The industrial areas of the American lake ports on Lake Superior, Lake Michigan, Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Ontario; and the connecting waters between the Great Lakes.

The fifth region, referred to in this report as the "Inland" region, includes yards situated primarily on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers and their tributaries, excluding those in Southern Louisiana and Mississippi. These yards, as previously stated, are not covered by the wage-stabilization program.

Labor Force

The building of ships requires a high degree of skill. In many occupations the work is both arduous and hazardous. Although the labor force in a shipyard still consists mainly of male workers, as a result of the tremendous expansion of the industry and the serious manpower shortage, women have been hired in increasing numbers. They are now found in many capacities, even as welders, an occupation which until recently was limited to men. Even at the present time, however, women constitute only a small proportion of all shipyard workers. When performing the same work as men, they receive equal pay, and therefore no attempt was made in this report to present data separately for men and women.

Craftsmen account for over one-half of the labor force in all regions except the Gulf Coast. In the latter region, craftsmen represent only about two-fifths of all workers. Classes or gradations of workers are generally found within each craft, ranging from handymen up to first-class workers and specialists. In this report, specialists are combined with first-class workers. The number of classes below the first class varies with yards and regions. On the West Coast, only one broad group is found. Within this group or class, which is known as the "trainee" group, and which combines all of the classes below first class found in other regions, workers advance within a specified period of time (from 2 to 6 months) to first class. In other regions, workers start as handymen and advance successively through the third and second class up to the first class; the rate of advance varies widely, depending largely on the proficiency of the worker and openings in the higher classes.

The separate figures for first-class workers (including specialists) and other classes of craftsmen reveal rather wide variations by region. In the fall of 1942, the greatest proportion of first-class workers (48.2 percent) was found on the Pacific Coast, while the lowest (15.4 percent) was found in the Atlantic Coast yards (table 1). The Great Lakes region ranked third, 31.4 percent of all workers being designated as first class. The Gulf Coast and Inland regions each had about the same proportion of first-class workers, 23.6 and 23.3 percent, respectively. Because of wide variations between regions and even within regions in the number of classes of craftsmen below first class, it is not possible to refine this group in order to make regional comparisons. It may be noted, however, that the proportion of craftsmen other than first class in the total labor force varied from 10.6 percent on the Pacific Coast to 41.4 percent on the Atlantic Coast.

Craftsmen's helpers form a very substantial proportion of the workers in any shipyard. The proportion does not vary greatly among regions, ranging from a low of 17.6 percent in the Atlantic Coast yards to a high of 25.5 percent in the Great Lakes area.

The greatest proportion of apprentices and learners, 13.8 percent, was found in the Gulf Coast area. This compares with 8.1 percent on the Atlantic Coast, 5.8 percent on the Great Lakes, 2.8 percent in the Inland region, and 0.6 percent on the Pacific Coast.

Another important occupation from the standpoint of number of workers is that of laborers. The Gulf and Inland regions had a substantially higher proportion of such workers than the other three regions.

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TABLE 1.—Percent of Day-Shift Workers in Ship-Construction Yards, by Class of Worker and Region, Spring and Fall of 1942

Class of worker	Atlantic Coast		Gulf Coast		Pacific Coast		Great Lakes		Inland	
	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942
Craftsmen, first class.....	15.4	15.2	23.6	24.6	48.2	52.1	31.4	27.1	23.3	20.9
Craftsmen, other classes.....	41.4	38.5	18.0	17.4	10.6	5.5	21.1	28.9	30.8	32.5
Helpers.....	17.6	16.3	21.0	24.0	20.4	22.7	25.5	23.0	17.7	16.7
Laborers.....	7.6	8.2	14.4	13.9	4.6	5.8	4.8	6.5	14.2	18.9
Apprentices and learners.....	8.1	10.8	13.8	12.7	.6	.4	5.8	3.7	2.8	3.4
Supervisors.....	5.9	5.3	5.5	4.2	11.6	7.3	7.0	4.7	7.5	3.1
Other workers.....	4.0	5.7	3.7	3.2	4.0	6.2	4.4	6.1	3.7	4.5
All workers studied.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The constitution of the labor force in private ship-construction yards does not appear to have changed materially between the spring and fall of 1942, as an examination of table 1 indicates. It should be mentioned, however, that the yard coverage in the fall survey was somewhat broader than that in the spring survey. This difference in coverage may tend to obscure some of the changes which actually did take place. On the basis of the data in table 1, the most outstanding change occurred in the Great Lakes region, where the number of craftsmen other than first class decreased from 28.9 percent in the spring to 21.1 percent in the fall of 1942. Part of this decline is accounted for by the increase in the proportion of first-class craftsmen from 27.1 to 31.4 percent. Other significant changes were a decline of about 4 percentage points in the proportion of first-class workers on the Pacific Coast and general increases in the relative number of supervisory workers (foremen, assistant foremen, quartermen, and leaders) in each of the five regions.

Wage-Stabilization Program

A wage-stabilization program in the shipbuilding industry was sponsored early in 1941 by the Shipbuilding Stabilization Committee of the National Defense Advisory Commission, to secure greater uniformity in rates of pay and to provide for a systematic and periodic review of general wage levels in the industry. Four agreements⁴ were voluntarily entered into by representatives of both the shipbuilders and the labor organizations and were approved by the Navy, the Maritime Commission, and the Office of Production Management. The agreements became effective on the following dates: West Coast, April 1; Great Lakes, June 2; Atlantic Coast, June 23; and Gulf Coast, August 1, 1941.

Under the 1941 wage-stabilization agreements, a minimum wage was set for "first-class skilled mechanics."⁵ This rate was set at \$1.12 in the Atlantic, Pacific, and Great Lakes regions and at \$1.07 in the Gulf Coast region. The determination of the occupations to be included in the "first-class skilled mechanic" group and the rates to be paid to other workers were left to local bargaining between management and labor. The agreements also made provision for the stand-

⁴ For further detail on these agreements, see Monthly Labor Review, issues of May 1941 (p.1162) and October 1941 (p. 880).

⁵ The Atlantic and Gulf Coasts and the Great Lakes agreements designated the workers entitled to the minimum rate as "first-class skilled mechanics," but in the Pacific Coast agreement, they were referred to as "skilled mechanics." In actual practice, however, the minimum in each of the regions has been applied to "first-class skilled mechanics" only.

ardization of shifts, overtime pay, shift differentials, prohibition against strikes and lockouts, and periodic wage adjustments based on increases in cost of living. The first wage adjustment was to take place at the end of the first year of the respective agreements.

The effective dates of the wage agreements, it will be recalled, varied from April 1 to August 1. Since living costs mounted rapidly and unevenly in the months following the effective dates of the agreements, there was danger that the wage structure of the industry would be upset if cost-of-living adjustments were made at different times for each region. Consequently, a National Shipbuilding Conference, composed of representatives of the War Production Board, the Navy Department, the Maritime Commission, labor, and management, was held in May 1942 to consider methods of adjusting wages in all four regions. This conference, acting on an appeal from the President, agreed to delete from the zone agreements the provision for adjusting wages in proportion to changes in the cost of living. Instead, specific wage increases, which were generally lower than the workers would have obtained by application of the cost-of-living formula, were agreed upon. The new minimum for "first-class skilled mechanics" was set at \$1.20 for each of the four regions, thus eliminating the differential that had existed for the Gulf Coast region under the terms of the first agreements. For other than first-class skilled mechanics, the amended agreements provided for an increase of 8 cents an hour except on the Gulf Coast where a sliding scale was effected. This scale provided for increases ranging from 9 cents an hour for workers with rates up to 69.5 cents to 13 cents an hour for workers with rates of \$1.07 and above. Parties to the conference agreed that all wage increases in each of the regions were to be paid in United States Savings Bonds. Methods of applying this provision were left to local bargaining between labor and management.

The new agreements further provided for elimination of double-time rates for Saturday and Sunday work as such, and prescribed instead for the payment of time and a half for the sixth consecutive day and double time for the seventh consecutive day in a worker's regularly established week. The agreements also provided for the payment of time and a half for all work on holidays recognized by local agreements and authorized the acceptance of extra pay in lieu of vacations.

The amended agreements became effective in each of the regions at the expiration of the first year of the original agreement and are to remain in effect for the duration of the war. Periodic wage reviews were provided for, with the first scheduled to be made about June 1, 1943. Annual reviews are to be made thereafter.

Hourly Earnings, Fall of 1942

The hourly straight-time earnings of shipbuilding workers on the first shift averaged \$1.044 in November 1942. The highest earnings in any of the five regions were found on the Pacific Coast, where the workers averaged \$1.135 an hour. Gulf Coast shipyards reported the lowest earnings, the average being 90.7 cents an hour. The averages in the remaining regions were \$1.048 in the Atlantic Coast area, 99.4 cents in the Great Lakes area, and 97.4 cents in the Inland area. These averages indicate the existence of substantially different wage or employment structures in the different areas.

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TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Ship-Construction Workers, by Region, Occupation, and Class, Spring and Fall of 1942

Occupation and class	Atlantic Coast		Gulf Coast		Pacific Coast		Great Lakes		Inland	
	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942
Average hourly straight-time earnings ¹										
All occupations studied.....	\$1.048	\$0.966	\$0.907	\$0.776	\$1.135	\$1.034	\$0.994	\$0.861	\$0.974	\$0.795
Angelsmiths.....	1.165	1.142	1.227	1.050	1.273	1.267	.954	.900	1.284	(²)
First class.....	1.428	1.296	1.334	1.050	1.331	1.267	(²)	(²)	(²)	(²)
Other classes.....	1.074	.952	1.065	-----	1.194	-----	.939	.875	(²)	(²)
Angelsmiths' helpers.....	.968	.724	.798	-----	1.080	1.000	(²)	.707	-----	-----
Apprentices.....	.824	.691	.815	.724	1.019	.717	.672	(²)	.795	.646
Blacksmiths.....	1.141	1.086	1.156	1.051	1.165	1.132	1.147	.969	.983	.960
First class.....	1.222	1.153	1.214	1.061	1.205	1.151	1.193	1.035	1.100	1.012
Other classes.....	1.073	1.034	.941	(²)	1.057	(²)	1.050	.902	.820	(²)
Blacksmiths' helpers.....	.880	.849	.751	.617	.967	.873	.871	.751	.660	.609
Boilermakers.....	1.124	1.047	1.093	.974	1.173	1.111	1.150	(²)	1.121	-----
First class.....	1.360	1.239	1.200	1.075	1.200	1.121	1.200	(²)	1.194	-----
Other classes.....	1.096	1.012	1.009	.862	1.070	1.037	(²)	(²)	.977	-----
Boilermakers' helpers.....	.929	.757	.706	.612	.950	.866	.835	-----	.928	-----
Bolters, hand ¹986	1.257	(²)	.950	.955	.872	.916	.741	-----	-----
First class.....	1.063	1.290	(²)	.950	.955	.872	.919	.780	-----	-----
Other classes.....	.918	1.208	(²)	-----	-----	-----	(²)	.730	-----	-----
Burners, acetylene (including gas).....	1.123	1.064	1.100	.978	1.179	1.116	1.093	.968	1.093	.854
First class.....	1.222	1.151	1.209	1.070	1.200	1.123	1.162	1.069	1.198	(²)
Other classes.....	1.077	1.012	1.010	.843	1.067	1.001	1.047	.829	1.004	.844
Burners' helpers, acetylene (including gas).....	.862	(⁴)	.702	(⁴)	.950	(⁴)	.797	(⁴)	.879	(⁴)
Carpenters (shipwrights).....	1.035	.988	1.135	.949	1.197	1.121	1.094	.983	1.074	.926
First class.....	1.142	1.100	1.196	1.063	1.203	1.128	1.186	1.085	1.162	1.004
Other classes.....	.963	.948	.959	.783	1.042	.941	.955	.863	.836	.817
Carpenters' helpers.....	.802	.731	.680	.615	.943	.870	.811	.711	.812	.702
Chippers and caulkers (including foundry chippers).....	1.219	1.218	1.124	.948	1.180	1.100	1.121	.975	1.116	.901
First class.....	1.396	1.360	1.200	1.070	1.204	1.123	1.180	1.091	1.186	.925
Other classes.....	1.132	1.176	1.032	.826	1.089	1.001	1.025	.792	1.013	.890
Coppersmiths.....	1.229	1.217	1.133	.980	1.195	1.091	1.183	(²)	(²)	-----
First class.....	1.488	1.422	1.203	(²)	1.200	1.167	1.183	(²)	(²)	-----
Other classes.....	1.085	1.047	.974	(²)	(²)	.992	-----	(²)	-----	-----
Coppersmiths' helpers.....	.853	.766	.694	.624	.972	.870	-----	.778	(²)	-----
Crane operators (all types).....	1.154	1.056	1.177	1.068	1.286	1.191	1.116	1.000	1.161	.957
First class.....	1.193	1.137	1.185	1.068	1.290	1.191	1.177	.991	1.224	.925
Other classes.....	1.119	.942	1.034	-----	1.091	-----	1.058	1.010	1.090	.983
Draftsmen (senior and junior).....	1.382	1.323	1.163	.711	1.321	1.116	1.121	.933	1.301	1.360
Drillers (including reamers and countersinkers).....	1.249	1.111	1.067	(²)	1.079	1.000	.936	.810	-----	-----
First class.....	1.354	1.242	1.070	(²)	1.080	1.000	(²)	.850	-----	-----
Other classes.....	1.176	.922	(²)	-----	1.050	(²)	.932	.783	-----	-----
Electricians.....	1.107	1.047	1.154	1.012	1.191	1.133	1.126	.985	1.013	.913
First class.....	1.266	1.224	1.198	1.124	1.206	1.140	1.180	1.119	1.177	1.015
Other classes.....	1.064	.987	.933	.780	1.079	1.007	1.026	.912	.984	.876
Electricians' helpers.....	.853	.744	.682	.597	.955	.871	.796	.734	.819	.669
Erectors.....	1.024	1.011	1.081	-----	1.147	-----	.976	.810	.966	-----
First class.....	1.198	1.148	1.124	-----	1.206	-----	1.122	1.010	.931	-----
Other classes.....	.965	.961	.994	-----	1.116	-----	.942	.781	.996	-----
Erectors' helpers.....	.772	.684	.697	-----	.950	-----	.769	.645	-----	-----
Foremen (including assistant foremen and quartermen).....	1.640	1.503	1.428	1.234	1.537	1.421	1.372	1.282	1.363	1.176
Furnacemen (plate and forge shops).....	1.072	1.086	(²)	.943	(²)	1.232	(²)	.829	(²)	(²)
First class.....	1.348	1.133	(²)	1.150	(²)	1.232	(²)	.850	(²)	(²)
Other classes.....	1.023	1.039	-----	.685	-----	-----	(²)	(²)	-----	-----
Handymen, not elsewhere classified.....	.861	.813	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	.995	-----
Helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	.733	.740	.669	(²)	.941	.860	.718	.709	.786	.575
Joiners (including wood-working-machine operators).....	1.129	1.007	1.046	.933	1.200	1.123	1.124	1.033	-----	-----
First class.....	1.301	1.133	1.149	1.041	1.201	1.123	1.183	1.091	-----	-----
Other classes.....	1.032	.957	1.003	.805	(²)	(²)	1.014	.875	-----	-----
Joiners' helpers.....	.825	.725	.789	.550	.950	.836	.685	.670	-----	-----
Laborers (excluding tank cleaners and janitors).....	.718	.637	.611	.499	.880	.797	.707	.575	.743	.583

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Ship-Construction Workers, by Region, Occupation, and Class, Spring and Fall of 1942—Con.

Occupation and class	Atlantic Coast		Gulf Coast		Pacific Coast		Great Lakes		Inland	
	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942
Average hourly straight-time earnings ¹										
Layers-out	\$1.219	\$1.128	\$1.129	\$1.014	\$1.326	\$1.235	(?)	\$.930	\$1.138	\$0.964
First class	1.400	1.278	1.192	1.079	1.328	1.235	(?)	(?)	1.261	1.102
Other classes	1.125	.996	1.014	.866	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	.891	.895
Leaders	1.357	1.307	1.322	1.137	1.335	1.263	\$1.264	1.173	1.279	.993
Learners	.891	.790	.740	.500	.950		.906	.700	.697	.645
Loftsmen	1.218	1.200	1.153	1.079	1.313	1.229	1.120	.980	1.224	1.123
First class	1.402	1.348	1.406	1.253	1.325	1.254	1.197	1.052	1.303	1.175
Other classes	1.086	1.084	1.104	.978	1.090	1.049	.901	(?)	(?)	(?)
Machinists, shop and outside	1.138	1.060	1.123	.987	1.187	1.121	1.109	.968	1.052	.997
First class	1.291	1.235	1.200	1.056	1.203	1.128	1.175	1.089	1.186	1.073
Other classes	1.076	.987	.978	.859	1.081	1.014	1.032	.898	.992	.921
Machinists' helpers, shop and outside	.840	.733	.695	.620	.951	.868	.791	.719	.824	.601
Molders, foundry	1.308	1.136	1.200		(?)	1.145				
First class	1.555	1.265	1.200		(?)	1.145				
Other classes	1.145	1.048								
Painters, brush and spray	1.176	1.074	1.143	.837	1.119	1.123	1.070	.762	1.050	.816
First class	1.293	1.204	1.192	1.017	1.202	1.123	1.142	.984	1.128	.810
Other classes	1.085	1.012	.870	.674	1.025		.970	.657	.980	.819
Patternmakers	1.409	1.318	1.410	(?)	1.327	1.489	1.452	1.317		
First class	1.423	1.327	1.410	(?)	1.327	1.489	1.469	1.317		
Other classes	1.358	1.297		(?)			(?)			
Pipe fitters (including plumbers)	1.092	1.050	1.112	.983	1.183	1.118	1.119	1.066	1.077	.939
First class	1.251	1.201	1.198	1.066	1.200	1.122	1.168	1.124	1.171	.989
Other classes	1.040	.999	.998	.868	1.082	.973	.980	.917	.999	.914
Pipe fitters' helpers (including plumbers' helpers)	.864	.754	.702	.615	.949	.870	.798	.687	.807	.651
Plate-shop machine operators	1.108	1.044	1.077	.915	1.149	1.061	1.068	.885	1.110	.916
First class	1.363	1.160	1.177	1.056	1.206	1.118	(?)	.870	1.228	.858
Other classes	1.045	1.005	1.009	.788	1.094	.974	1.055	.900	1.035	.991
Plate-shop machine operators' helpers	.867	.754	.713	.634	.950	.877	.834	.640	.830	.612
Regulators	1.062	1.029	.950	.950	1.130	1.053	(?)	.860		
First class	1.169	1.148		.950	1.130	1.053	(?)	.860		
Other classes	.973	.935								
Riggers, ship	1.138	1.049	1.119	.975	1.177	1.130	.947	.943		(?)
First class	1.224	1.161	1.195	1.067	1.200	1.130	1.016	.943		(?)
Other classes	1.099	1.002	1.011	.910	1.122		.830			(?)
Riggers, yard and crane	.901	.882	.736	.839	1.109	1.065	.967	.794	1.071	.750
First class	1.025	.978	1.080	.997	1.118	1.065	1.075	.796	1.081	.831
Other classes	.844	.858	.713	.798	1.074		.900	.788	1.037	.668
Rivet heaters	1.021	.973	.886	(?)	1.080	1.000	.941	.780		(?)
Rivet holders-on	1.244	1.196	.893	.660	1.080	1.006	1.061	.920		
Rivet passers	.833	.909	(?)		.963	.896	.764	.653		
Riveters	1.441	1.348	1.305	1.056	1.197	1.122	1.205	1.115		(?)
First class	1.768	1.498	1.317	1.070	1.211	1.122	1.227	1.115		(?)
Other classes	1.267	1.261	(?)	(?)	1.087		(?)			
Sheet-metal workers (including tinsmiths)	1.146	1.077	1.121	.956	1.194	1.080	1.163	.914	1.022	1.016
First class	1.385	1.302	1.199	1.038	1.204	1.129	1.198	.935	1.225	(?)
Other classes	1.084	1.013	1.009	.850	1.075	.963	1.041	.893	.991	.963
Sheet-metal workers' helpers	.882	.779	.671	.620	.956	.872	.811	.690	.848	(?)
Ship fitters	1.100	1.015	1.079	.947	1.172	1.090	1.097	.945	1.028	.882
First class	1.255	1.169	1.203	1.061	1.203	1.121	1.177	1.110	1.189	1.042
Other classes	1.076	.988	1.008	.834	1.091	1.002	1.006	.838	.969	.834
Ship fitters' helpers	.848	.743	.682	.587	.960	.870	.799	.683	.742	.572
Stage builders	.987	.877			1.080	1.000	.886			
Tank cleaners	.673				.930	.850				(?)
Tool and die makers	1.181	1.105	(?)		(?)	1.174	(?)			
First class	1.371	1.255	(?)		(?)	1.195	(?)			
Other classes	1.010	1.030				(?)				
Tracers	.754	.691	.837	(?)	.902	.831	.759	.737	1.017	(?)
Watchmen and guards	.760	.660	.665	.507	.901	.808	.767	.561	.713	.613
Welders, acetylene and electric	1.231	1.149	1.106	.969	1.165	1.122	1.093	.983	1.072	.874
First class	1.516	1.426	1.260	1.061	1.200	1.127	1.184	1.088	1.174	1.038
Other classes	1.172	1.079	.988	.814	1.071	1.020	.889	.898	.987	.763
Welders' helpers, acetylene and electric	.827	.713	.748	.625	.967	.860	.777	.668	.782	(?)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2

Occupation

All occupations

Anglesmiths

First class

Other classes

Anglesmiths

Apprentices

Blacksmiths

First class

Other classes

Blacksmiths

Boilermakers

First class

Other classes

Boilermakers

Bolters, hand

First class

Other classes

Burners, gas

First class

Other classes

Burners' (including)

Carpenters

First class

Other classes

Carpenters

Chippers

Including

First class

Other classes

Coppersmiths

First class

Other classes

Coppersmiths

Crane operators

First class

Other classes

Draftsmen

Drillers

And couplings

First class

Other classes

Electricians

First class

Other classes

Electricians

Erectors

First class

Other classes

Erectors

Foremen

Foremen

Furnacemen

Shops

First class

Other classes

Handymen

Classified

Helpers, first

Joiners

Workmen

First class

Other classes

Joiners' helpers

Laborers

Cleaners

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Ship-Construction Workers, by Region, Occupation, and Class, Spring and Fall of 1942—Con.

Occupation and class	Atlantic Coast		Gulf Coast		Pacific Coast		Great Lakes		Inland	
	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942
Percent of workers										
All occupations studied.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Angelsmiths.....	.2	.1	.1	.1	.2	(⁵)	.3	.3	.1	.2
First class.....	(⁵)	.1	.1	.1	.1	(⁵)	(⁵)	.1	.1	.1
Other classes.....	.2	(⁵)	(⁵)		.1		.3	.2	(⁵)	.1
Angelsmiths' helpers.....	.2	.1	.2		.2	.1	(⁵)	.3		
Apprentices.....	1.4	2.7	9.5	12.6	.5	.4	.6	.1	.5	1.0
Blacksmiths.....	.3	.2	.2	.3	.1	.1	.4	.6	.3	.6
First class.....	.1	.1	.1	.3	.1	.1	.3	.3	.2	.4
Other classes.....	.2	.1	.1	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	.1	.3	.1	.2
Blacksmiths' helpers.....	.2	.3	.4	.2	(⁵)	.1	.4	.7	.3	.7
Boilermakers.....	.6	.7	.3	.3	.7	.3	.2	.1	1.5	
First class.....	.1	.1	.1	.2	.6	.3	.1	.1	1.0	
Other classes.....	.5	.6	.2	.1	.1	(⁵)	.1	(⁵)	.5	
Boilermakers' helpers.....	.3	.7	.3	.7	2.0	.6	.2		1.1	
Bolters, hand ¹3	.5	(⁵)	.2	.6	2.4	.9	3.0		
First class.....	.1	.3	(⁵)	.2	.6	2.4	.9	.7		
Other classes.....	.2	.2	(⁵)				(⁵)	2.3		
Burners, acetylene (including gas).....	2.1	1.7	3.0	2.0	3.8	3.5	1.1	1.8	2.0	1.4
First class.....	.7	.7	1.3	1.2	3.2	3.3	.4	1.0	.9	.2
Other classes.....	1.4	1.0	1.7	.8	.6	.2	.7	.8	1.1	1.2
Burners' helpers, acetylene (including gas).....	.2	(⁵)	.5	(⁵)	.2	(⁵)	.4	(⁵)	.2	(⁵)
Carpenters (shipwrights).....	6.0	4.0	6.6	11.4	5.2	3.8	12.0	14.7	4.4	3.9
First class.....	2.4	1.0	4.9	6.7	5.0	3.7	7.1	7.9	3.2	2.3
Other classes.....	3.6	3.0	1.7	4.7	.2	.1	4.9	6.8	1.2	1.6
Carpenters' helpers.....	1.2	.8	1.9	4.1	1.7	1.5	3.1	6.3	.5	.5
Chippers and caulkers (including foundry chippers).....	2.2	2.0	1.1	1.2	2.6	3.7	2.0	2.3	1.8	1.5
First class.....	.7	.8	.6	.6	2.0	3.0	1.2	1.4	1.1	.5
Other classes.....	1.5	1.2	.5	.6	.6	.7	.8	.9	.7	1.0
Coppersmiths.....	.3	.4	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	
First class.....	.1	.2	.1	(⁵)	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	
Other classes.....	.2	.2	(⁵)	.1	(⁵)	.1		(⁵)		
Coppersmiths' helpers.....	.4	.3	.2	.1	.2	(⁵)		.2	(⁵)	
Crane operators (all types).....	.8	1.0	.9	.5	.5	.9	.6	.8	.9	1.4
First class.....	.4	.6	.9	.5	.5	.9	.3	.4	.5	.6
Other classes.....	.4	.4	(⁵)		(⁵)		.3	.4	.4	.8
Draftsmen (senior and junior).....	1.2	2.2	.8	1.2	.5	.9	.9	3.0	.8	2.0
Drillers (including reamers and countersinkers).....	1.0	.9	.6	(⁵)	1.1	1.0	.6	.5		
First class.....	.4	.5	.6	(⁵)	1.1	1.0	(⁵)	.2		
Other classes.....	.6	.4	(⁵)		(⁵)	(⁵)	.6	.3		
Electricians.....	4.5	4.4	2.7	3.7	4.3	2.7	3.9	2.9	2.6	2.7
First class.....	1.0	1.1	2.2	2.5	3.8	2.6	2.6	1.0	.4	.7
Other classes.....	3.5	3.3	.5	1.2	.5	.1	1.3	1.9	2.2	2.0
Electricians' helpers.....	2.1	2.0	2.1	3.7	1.6	.9	1.6	1.4	1.1	1.3
Erectors.....	1.0	.8	.5		.4		1.8	1.9	.5	
First class.....	.3	.2	.3		.3		.3	.2	.2	
Other classes.....	.7	.6	.2		.1		1.5	1.7	.3	
Erectors' helpers.....	.2	.2	.1		.2		2.5	2.9		
Foremen (including assistant foremen and quartermen).....	3.2	2.5	1.3	1.1	3.1	1.2	3.9	2.3	5.0	.9
Furnacemen (plate and forge shops).....	.1	.2	(⁵)	.2	(⁵)	.3	.1	.3	(⁵)	.1
First class.....	(⁵)	.1	(⁵)	.1	(⁵)	.3	(⁵)	.2	(⁵)	.1
Other classes.....	.1	.1		.1			.1	.1		
Handymen, not elsewhere classified.....	.8	.3							.3	
Helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	1.8	1.0	.3	(⁵)	.3	.3	.5	1.5	1.9	1.6
Joiners (including wood-working-machine operators).....	1.4	1.6	.5	1.3	.9	1.2	1.3	.7		
First class.....	.5	.5	.1	.7	.9	1.2	.9	.5		
Other classes.....	.9	1.1	.4	.6	(⁵)	(⁵)	.4	.2		
Joiners' helpers.....	.2	.6	(⁵)	.1	.2	.3	.2	.2		
Laborers (excluding tank cleaners and janitors).....	7.6	8.2	14.4	13.9	4.6	5.8	4.8	6.5	14.2	18.9

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Ship-Construction Workers, by Region, Occupation, and Class, Spring and Fall of 1942—Con.

Occupation and class	Atlantic Coast		Gulf Coast		Pacific Coast		Great Lakes		Inland	
	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942	Fall 1942	Spring 1942
Percent of workers										
Layers-out	0.5	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.5	2.2
First class	.2	.2	.5	.5	.4	.4	.1	.2	.3	.7
Other classes	.3	.3	.2	.2	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	.2	1.5
Leaders	2.7	2.8	4.2	3.1	8.5	6.1	3.1	2.4	2.5	2.2
Learners	6.7	8.1	4.3	.1	.1		5.2	3.6	2.3	2.4
Loftsmen	.4	.5	.4	.3	.2	.6	.4	.3	.3	.9
First class	.2	.2	.1	.1	.2	.5	.3	.2	.2	.7
Other classes	.2	.3	.3	.2	(¹)	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2
Machinists, shop and outside	6.5	7.9	3.4	3.6	4.2	3.8	6.0	5.9	6.1	6.7
First class	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.4	3.6	3.5	3.2	2.2	1.9	3.4
Other classes	4.6	5.5	1.2	1.2	.6	.3	2.8	3.7	4.2	3.3
Machinists' helpers, shop and outside	2.2	2.6	1.6	2.1	2.4	2.1	4.9	1.9	2.6	3.3
First class	.2	.3	.1		(¹)	(¹)				
Other classes	.1	.2	.1		(¹)	(¹)				
Painters, brush and spray	2.6	3.1	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.8	2.5	2.8	3.0	2.4
First class	1.1	1.0	1.4	1.0	2.5	2.8	1.4	.9	1.4	.8
Other classes	1.5	2.1	.3	1.1	(¹)		1.1	1.9	1.6	1.6
Patternmakers	.1	.2	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	.5	.8		
First class	.1	.1	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	.5	.8		
Other classes	(¹)	.1		(¹)			(¹)			
Pipe fitters (including plumbers)	4.7	3.4	2.7	2.7	4.7	3.4	4.3	1.9	5.2	2.7
First class	1.2	.9	1.5	1.6	4.0	3.3	3.2	1.4	2.3	.9
Other classes	3.5	2.5	1.2	1.1	.7	.1	1.1	.5	2.9	1.8
Pipe fitters' helpers (including plumbers' helpers)	2.3	2.5	3.1	3.9	3.2	3.1	3.0	1.4	2.7	.9
Plate-shop machine operators	.4	.6	.2	.3	2.3	1.6	.3	.6	.6	1.3
First class	.1	.2	.1	.1	1.1	1.0	(¹)	.3	.3	.7
Other classes	.3	.4	.1	.2	1.2	.6	.3	.3	.3	.6
Plate-shop machine operators' helpers	.2	1.2	.2	.2	.3	1.2	1.0	.6	.5	1.3
Regulators	.2	.2		.2	.9	.7	.1	.2		
First class	.1	.1		.2	.9	.7	.1	.2		
Other classes	.1	.1								
Riggers, ship	1.3	1.2	.6	.6	1.7	.2	.5	.7		.2
First class	.4	.4	.3	.3	1.2	.2	.3	.7		.1
Other classes	.9	.8	.3	.3	.5		.2			.1
Riggers, yard and crane	.6	.8	1.7	1.8	.7	2.0	.8	1.0	.9	1.1
First class	.2	.2	.1	.4	.6	2.0	.3	.7	.7	.5
Other classes	.4	.6	1.6	1.4	.1		.5	.3	.2	.6
Rivet heaters	.3	.4	.3	(¹)	.1	.3	.2	.2		.1
Rivet holders-on	.3	.4	.3	.1	.1	.4	.2	.3		
Rivet passers	.2	.3	(¹)		.1	(¹)	.3	.2		
Riveters	.4	.5	.3	.4	.2	.3	.6	.7		.1
First class	.1	.2	.3	.4	.2	.3	.5	.7		.1
Other classes	.3	.3	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)		.1			
Sheet-metal workers (including tinsmiths)	2.7	3.0	1.7	.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	.4	1.1	1.1
First class	.6	.6	1.0	.2	1.3	.8	.9	.2	.1	.2
Other classes	2.1	2.4	.7	.2	.1	.5	.3	.2	1.0	.9
Sheet-metal workers' helpers	1.4	1.4	1.5	.2	1.8	.9	.7	.7	.5	.2
Ship fitters	6.3	5.8	3.9	3.6	7.2	8.1	3.0	3.1	8.8	7.7
First class	.9	.9	1.4	1.8	5.2	6.0	1.6	1.2	2.4	1.8
Other classes	5.4	4.9	2.5	1.8	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.9	6.4	5.9
Ship fitters' helpers	4.2	2.4	5.6	6.1	4.6	10.1	5.3	3.9	4.9	6.8
Stage builders	.6	.9			1.2	2.1	.5			
Tank cleaners	(¹)				.6	1.4				.1
Tool and die makers	.1	.1	(¹)		(¹)	.1	.1			
First class	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)		(¹)	.1	.1			
Other classes	.1	.1			(¹)					
Tracers	.1	.2	.2	(¹)	.1	.2	.3	.8	.3	.2
Watchmen and guards	1.3	1.0	2.1	1.9	1.3	.9	2.0	1.6	2.6	2.1
Welders, acetylene and electric	8.2	7.1	7.6	4.0	11.8	12.2	6.8	7.4	13.1	15.2
First class	1.4	1.4	3.3	2.5	8.6	11.6	4.7	3.3	6.0	6.1
Other classes	6.8	5.7	4.3	1.5	3.2	.6	2.1	4.1	7.1	9.1
Welders' helpers, acetylene and electric	.5	.2	3.0	2.6	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.0	1.4	.1

¹ Excluding earnings resulting from extra pay for overtime work.² Number of workers too small to justify computation of average.³ Includes a small number of machine bolters.⁴ Occupation not included in spring 1942 study.⁵ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

ATLANTIC COAST

The Atlantic Coast region, despite extensive expansion of the industry in other parts of the country, continues to play a leading role in the building of ships. At the time of the wage survey, a wide variety of ships, ranging from the larger naval and commercial deep-sea vessels to the smaller harbor craft, was being constructed in the yards in this region. Yards in the Atlantic area vary greatly in size.

Atlantic Coast shipyards reported first-shift workers in each of the 60 occupational groups covered by the study. Although considerations of national safety prevent disclosure of the number of workers in these occupations, the relationship of the various occupations to the labor pattern as a whole can be ascertained from the ratio of the number of workers in each occupation to the total number of workers in the 60 occupations studied.

About nine-tenths (89.8 percent) of all the workers studied were found in 28 of the 60 selected occupations, the major concentrations being among acetylene and electric welders (8.2 percent), laborers (7.6 percent), learners (6.7 percent), machinists (6.5 percent), ship fitters (6.3 percent), and carpenters (6.0 percent). Three other occupations—electricians, pipe fitters, and ship fitters' helpers—had between 4 and 6 percent of all workers.

Any discussion of occupational wage rates in the shipbuilding industry should take into consideration the classes or gradations of workers within crafts. As previously pointed out, each craft is divided into a number of classes based on skill requirements. There is, however, no uniformity among regions or even within regions in the classes found within crafts. Only first-class workers and specialists are comparable from yard to yard and between regions. The various classes below first class were therefore combined into one broad group—"other classes."

First-shift workers in the selected occupations in Atlantic Coast yards, as table 2 shows, had hourly straight-time average earnings of \$1.048 in November 1942. Occupational averages ranged from 67.3 cents an hour for tank cleaners to \$1.768 an hour for first-class riveters.

Nearly one-fifth (19.6 percent) of the workers, most of whom were first-class craftsmen, were in occupations in which earnings averaged more than \$1.20 an hour, and another two-fifths (39.1 percent) were in occupations with average earnings of between \$1.00 and \$1.20 an hour. The latter workers, for the most part, belonged to the "other classes" of craftsmen, i. e., from handymen up to but not including first-class workers. Nearly a third of the workers were in occupations with average earnings ranging from 75 cents to \$1.00 an hour. Most of these workers were helpers in the various crafts.

First-class craftsmen generally earned more than the \$1.20 minimum established for such workers under the 1942 stabilization agreement. Because of special circumstances, earnings lower than \$1.20 were found for 5 "first-class" groups of workers—erectors (\$1.198), crane operators (\$1.193), regulators (\$1.169), carpenters (\$1.142), and bolters (\$1.063). Regulators and bolters are not generally considered by Atlantic Coast yards as "first-class skilled mechanics." The relatively low average for carpenters is due to lower wages paid in a few small yards engaged in wooden-boat building and employing a large number of such workers.

These yards, as a rule, have not subscribed to the stabilization program. In the larger yards, however, the rates paid to carpenters approach the minimum of \$1.20 set forth in the zone agreement. The occupation of crane operators as used in this report covers workers operating a wide variety of cranes, not all of which command the \$1.20 rate. Generally, \$1.20 or more an hour was paid for operators of cranes other than bridge cranes, while lower rates prevailed for operators of the bridge type. The payment of rates slightly below the minimum to first-class erectors in a few yards caused the average for the occupation to fall slightly short of \$1.20.

The average earnings for craftsmen designated as "other classes" differed widely among crafts, largely because of variations in the composition of these groups. There was little uniformity in the number of second- and third-class workers and handymen reported by the various yards.

Earnings of shipyard workers, in general, were also influenced to some extent by size of yard and type of construction. Workers in the larger yards averaged about 10 cents more per hour than those in the smaller yards. The latter group includes a number of wooden-boat building operations which, as stated, do not generally subscribe to the stabilization program and generally have a lower wage level. The occupational structure in these yards also differs materially from that in yards building metal ships.

Incentive methods of pay are quite prevalent among Atlantic Coast yards. More than a third (35.7 percent) of the workers surveyed participated in incentive-payment plans and were thus able to increase their basic rates of pay by about 19 percent above the base rate. The net effect of incentive payments was to raise by almost 7 percent the average earnings of the workers in the region as a whole.

Some idea of the variations in earnings between yards may be obtained from the following tabulation which presents the lowest and the highest averages paid to first-class workers in 5 representative crafts. The lowest rates were invariably found in small yards engaged in the construction of wooden ships, while the highest rates were generally found in yards having incentive methods of wage payment.

	Lowest yard average	Highest yard average
Carpenters (shipwrights).....	\$0. 750	\$1. 661
Chippers and caulkers.....	. 750	2. 576
Electricians.....	. 750	1. 570
Machinists, shop and outside.....	. 750	1. 554
Welders, acetylene and electric.....	. 727	2. 169

GULF COAST

Shipbuilding in yards on the Gulf of Mexico and the East Coast of Florida, the area comprising the Gulf Coast region under the stabilization program, plays an important part in the wartime program. Although not so large in terms of number of yards, employment, or production as the Atlantic and Pacific Coast areas, the industry in the Gulf region is contributing materially to the Nation's fast-growing fleet of large deep-sea and coastwise vessels and smaller harbor craft.

First-shift workers in the Gulf Coast yards were reported in all but 4 of 60 occupational groups studied, and nine-tenths (90.7 percent)

were in 24 of these groups (table 2). Approximately 14 percent of the workers were classified as laborers. Other occupations containing more than 5 percent of the workers studied were apprentices (9.5 percent), welders (7.6 percent), carpenters (6.6 percent), and ship fitters' helpers (5.6 percent).

The average hourly straight-time earnings of first-shift workers in the Gulf Coast region amounted to 90.7 cents in November 1942. Individual occupational averages ranged from 61.1 cents for laborers to \$1.428 for foremen.

Somewhat more than one-fourth of the workers studied (28.8 percent) were found in occupations in which hourly earnings averaged more than \$1.16 an hour. These occupational groups were very largely made up of first-class workers who were generally paid the minimum rate of \$1.20 an hour in yards subscribing to the stabilization agreement. In 9 occupations, first-class workers averaged from 0.1 to 2.3 cents less than the first-class minimum rate of \$1.20, owing to the lower wages in a few small yards (generally the wooden-ship yards) which did not subscribe to the stabilization agreement. In 4 other occupations, namely, joiners, erectors, yard and crane riggers, and drillers, average earnings were substantially below the \$1.20 rate (from \$1.07 to \$1.149). In the Gulf Coast region first-class workers in these 4 occupations were not generally considered as being subject to the wage-stabilization minimum.

Another 17 percent of the workers were in occupations in which earnings averaged between 93 cents and \$1.15. This group was made up mostly of second- and third-class craftsmen and handymen, designated as "other classes" in their respective occupations. Only two groups of "other classes" of workers averaged less than 93 cents an hour—painters (87 cents) and yard and crane riggers (71.3 cents).

Average hourly earnings of less than 90 cents were found in occupations employing more than half (54 percent) of the workers in the region. Of these workers, nearly two-fifths were helpers in the various crafts, all of whom had occupational averages of less than 80 cents an hour.

The variations in occupational averages in the Gulf Coast ship-construction yards were influenced by the different wage levels prevailing among the various yards. Typical examples of these differences are individual yard averages ranging from \$1.00 to \$1.526 for first-class welders, from 85 cents to \$1.21 for first-class painters, from 99 cents to \$1.20 for first-class electricians, and from 40 to 63 cents for laborers. Hourly averages by yard for "other classes" of craftsmen as well as nonclassified occupations present similar variations. Although wide variations in earnings exist among yards, considerable uniformity was found in the earnings of workers within the same occupation in the same yard.

PACIFIC COAST

With an average of \$1.135 an hour, the straight-time earnings of first-shift workers in Pacific Coast ship-construction yards were higher than in any of the other 4 regions (table 2). Occupational averages in this region ranged from 88 cents an hour for laborers to \$1.537 an hour for foremen.

Of the 60 broad occupational groups studied, no workers were reported for the "miscellaneous handymen" category. Such workers,

who cannot be identified with any craft, were not found in West Coast yards. About nine-tenths (90.3 percent) of all first-shift workers covered on the West Coast were found in 26 occupational groups. The outstanding occupation from the standpoint of number of workers was that of welders who comprised 11.8 percent of the workers surveyed. Only three other occupational groups had more than 5 percent of the workers studied. These were leaders (8.5 percent), ship fitters (7.2 percent), and carpenters (5.2 percent).

Nearly three-fifths (57.1 percent) of the workers were in occupations with average earnings of \$1.20 or more an hour. This group, except for the foremen, leaders, and draftsmen who are generally recognized as higher-paid supervisory and technical employees, was made up of first-class craftsmen. The minimum wage rate (\$1.20) for first-class skilled workers established under the amended stabilization agreement clearly has been applied broadly in the Pacific Coast yards. Eighteen of the first-class occupations, containing more than two-fifths (43.8 percent) of all workers studied, had average earnings of not less than \$1.20 and in some cases only slightly more than \$1.21 an hour. First-class craftsmen in 5 other occupations—anglesmiths, patternmakers, loftsmen, layers-out, and crane operators—had average earnings considerably higher than the stabilization minimum. These higher averages are the result of special rates agreed upon by labor and management for occupations requiring unusual skills or involving heavy work.

Only 4 groups of first-class workers averaged less than \$1.20 an hour, namely, regulators (\$1.13), yard and crane riggers (\$1.118), drillers (\$1.08), and bolters (95.5 cents). None of the workers in these jobs were considered to be within the scope of the term "first-class skilled mechanics" for which the \$1.20 minimum was established.

Another concentration of workers (21 percent) was found in occupations with average earnings of between 94 and 98 cents an hour. This group includes all of the craftsmen's helpers except anglesmiths' helpers. The latter averaged \$1.08 an hour. The most common rate paid to helpers on the West Coast was 95.0 cents an hour.

On the West Coast, "trainees" correspond to handymen and to the second- and third-class workers ("other classes") found in the other regions. In 14 of the 21 occupations for which data are shown for such workers (trainees), the averages ranged from \$1.06 to \$1.10 an hour.

Locality, size of yard, and type of vessel under construction appear to have little bearing on wages in West Coast shipyards. In general, the averages conform closely to the wage scale set forth in an agreement entered into by the West Coast operators and the Metal Trades Department of the American Federation of Labor. Any variations from these rates are attributable primarily to premium rates paid to specialists or for work performed under less desirable conditions.

GREAT LAKES REGION

Although smaller both in number of yards and workers than the industry in the seacoast regions, the Great Lakes shipbuilding operations nevertheless contribute measurably to the production of smaller commercial vessels and war craft.

Exactly 88 percent of all the workers studied in this region were found in 25 of the 60 occupational groups covered in the survey and more than a fifth of these were in the carpenter and welder crafts. The other 12 percent of the labor force was spread among 31 occupations. No workers were reported in only 4 occupations—coppersmiths' helpers, foundry molders, unclassified handymen, and tank cleaners.

Day-shift workers had average straight-time hourly earnings of 99.4 cents (table 2). The range in the averages of individual occupations was from 67.2 cents an hour for apprentices to \$1.469 for first-class patternmakers. Exactly three-eighths of the workers surveyed were in occupations with average earnings of more than \$1.12 an hour. This group was made up very largely of first-class craftsmen. Groups designated as "other classes" formed a major part of another 25 percent of the workers in occupations with average earnings ranging from 90 cents to slightly less than \$1.08 an hour. Occupations in which earnings averaged less than 90 cents an hour included all of the helper groups and accounted for the remaining two-fifths of those workers included in this study.

First-class workers in only three of the occupations generally recognized as being subject to the stabilization minimum had average earnings either equal to or in excess of \$1.20 an hour. This fact is not to be construed, however, as indicating a general disregard for the shipbuilding wage-stabilization program. On the contrary, the minimum rate of \$1.20 was quite generally paid to first-class skilled mechanics in yards subscribing to the wage-stabilization agreement. There were a few yards, however, that did not subscribe to the agreement and, therefore, did not pay the \$1.20 minimum to first-class skilled mechanics, while other yards accepted the agreement with some rate modifications. Despite this fact, variations in the average rates from yard to yard for the same occupation were not so pronounced as in most of the other regions. For example, yard averages for first-class carpenters fell in the narrow range of from \$1.12 to \$1.20 an hour, and the range for first-class welders was from \$1.12 to \$1.278. Among the occupations showing the greatest differences among yards was that of laborers, with average earnings ranging from 58.5 to 81.3 cents.

INLAND REGION

Shipbuilding activities in the broad area designated as the Inland region for purposes of this analysis have forged ahead rapidly since May 1942, and now play an important part in both the commercial and naval wartime shipbuilding program. Decided increases have occurred not only in the number of workers employed but also in the number of yards. Most of the yards in this region are situated on the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and their tributaries.

The occupational pattern in this area was less complex than in the other areas, all of the workers reported being found in 43 of the 60 occupational groups studied. About two-fifths of the workers were found to be laborers (14.2 percent), welders (13.1 percent), ship fitters (8.8 percent), and machinists (6.1 percent). Another fifth of the

workers were in 4 occupations—carpenters, foremen, pipe fitters, and ship fitters' helpers—each having between 4 and 6 percent of the workers surveyed.

The straight-time earnings of the day-shift workers in the Inland area averaged 97.4 cents an hour (table 2), 2.0 cents an hour less than workers in the Great Lakes area. Among the individual occupations, foremen were paid the highest (\$1.363) and blacksmiths' helpers the lowest (66 cents) average wages.

Occupations with average hourly earnings of more than \$1.00 included about one-third (34.2 percent) of the first-shift workers. In addition, a fourth of the workers (27.8 percent) had occupational average earnings of between 90 cents and \$1.00. First-class craftsmen comprised the major part of the former group, and "other classes" of workers (second- and third-class craftsmen and handymen) accounted for the greater part of the latter group. The occupations of craftsmen's helpers and laborers were numerically the most important of the occupations with average hourly earnings ranging from 66.0 cents to 89.0 cents. Occupational averages falling within this range included about two-fifths of the workers covered in this report.

Wages in this region are influenced to a considerable extent by such factors as size and type of yard and method of wage payment. On the average, the larger yards pay about 17 cents more per hour than the smaller operations. Of all the workers studied, about one-third (32.2 percent) received additional compensation under various forms of incentive-wage plans. As a result, the income of these workers was approximately 5 percent (4.9 cents) more than it would have been if they had received only their basic wage rates. These incentive payments raised the regional average by about 1.5 cents.

There was considerable variation among yards in rates paid for the same job. Yard averages, for example, ranged from 72.5 cents to \$1.206 for first-class carpenters, from 82.5 cents to \$1.306 for first-class machinists, from 80 cents to \$1.276 for first-class welders, and from 42.9 to 94.5 cents for laborers.

Although shipbuilding operations in this region do not come within the scope of the industry's wage-stabilization program, several of the yards have adopted wage scales similar to those in the other areas. Average hourly earnings approaching \$1.20 or higher than this amount were found in 10 of the 18 occupations for which data are shown for first-class workers.

Interregional Comparisons

The straight-time earnings of day-shift workers in private ship construction varied considerably from region to region in November 1942. The highest general wage level was found in the Pacific Coast region, where workers earned an average of \$1.135 an hour (table 2)

The Atlantic Coast region ranked second with a general average of \$1.048 an hour. In this region the earnings of the workers were influenced to a considerable extent by incentive-wage payments. As previously pointed out, approximately one-third of the workers in this region participated in incentive-earnings plans. In the other areas, incentive earnings were found to have comparatively little effect on the general level of earnings. The lowest wages prevailed among Gulf Coast yards, where workers averaged 90.7 cents an hour. Average earnings in the Great Lakes and Inland areas were only 2 cents apart, the respective averages being 99.4 and 97.4 cents an hour.

The distribution of yard average hourly earnings provides a useful indication of intraregional variations in plant wage levels and, in addition, sheds light on regional differences. Table 3 shows the percentage of yards in each region with specified wage levels, and the proportions of each regional labor force employed in yards with the designated levels of earnings. The least variation in plant averages was found in the Pacific Coast region, where over nine-tenths of the yards, employing more than 99 percent of the workers, had averages ranging from \$1.05 to \$1.20 an hour. Furthermore, 71.1 percent of all workers were in yards having averages falling within the narrow limits of \$1.10 to \$1.15 an hour. On the other hand, the greatest dispersion in yard averages was found in the Atlantic Coast region, where the range was from slightly more than 60 cents to just under \$1.25 an hour. However, over three-fifths of the Atlantic Coast yards, employing 71.0 percent of the workers, had averages ranging from 95 cents to \$1.15 an hour.

In the Gulf Coast region, most of the yards, with 92.3 percent of the workers, had averages ranging between 75 and 95 cents an hour. Within this group, however, the relationship between the distribution of yards and that of workers is somewhat different. Thus, yard-average earnings in one-seventh of the yards with 51.1 percent of all the workers fell between 90 and 95 cents, while three-fifths of the yards with but two-fifths of all the workers had average wage levels of less than 90 cents an hour.

In neither the Great Lakes nor the Inland regions were the yard averages concentrated at any single level. Most of the workers in the former area were employed in yards paying between 90 cents and \$1.05 an hour. Although over three-fourths of the workers in the Inland area were in yards in which hourly earnings averaged between 95 cents and \$1.10, there was a fairly heavy concentration in the interval from 75 to 80 cents.

TABLE 3.—Distribution of Shipyards and Workers by Average Hourly Yard Earnings and Region, Fall of 1942

Yard-average earnings group	United States	Atlantic Coast	Gulf Coast	Pacific Coast	Great Lakes	Inland
Percent of yards with specified yard-average earnings						
60.0 to 64.9 cents.....	2.3	3.2				11.1
65.0 to 69.9 cents.....	2.3	3.2				11.1
70.0 to 74.9 cents.....	2.3	3.2	7.7			
75.0 to 79.9 cents.....	8.1	6.5	23.0			22.2
80.0 to 84.9 cents.....	3.5		15.4			
85.0 to 89.9 cents.....	8.1	12.9	23.1		10.0	
90.0 to 94.9 cents.....	5.8	3.2	15.4		10.0	11.1
95.0 to 99.9 cents.....	11.6	22.6			20.0	11.1
\$1.000 to \$1.049.....	11.6	12.9	7.7		20.0	22.3
\$1.050 to \$1.099.....	12.8	12.9	7.7	21.8	10.0	11.1
\$1.100 to \$1.149.....	19.9	12.9		47.8	20.0	
\$1.150 to \$1.199.....	7.0			21.8	10.0	
\$1.200 to \$1.249.....	2.3	6.5				
\$1.250 to \$1.299.....	1.2			4.3		
\$1.300 to \$1.349.....	1.2			4.3		
All earnings.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percent of workers in yards with specified yard-average earnings						
60.0 to 64.9 cents.....	0.6	1.4				0.5
65.0 to 69.9 cents.....	.2	.4				1.5
70.0 to 74.9 cents.....	.2	.2	0.7			
75.0 to 79.9 cents.....	2.1	1.4	5.0			15.7
80.0 to 84.9 cents.....	1.7		8.8			
85.0 to 89.9 cents.....	8.9	8.3	27.4		6.9	
90.0 to 94.9 cents.....	10.9	.3	51.1		17.4	4.6
95.0 to 99.9 cents.....	11.7	24.3			32.6	17.7
\$1.000 to \$1.049.....	11.5	20.3	4.0		26.7	41.7
\$1.050 to \$1.099.....	7.5	11.1	3.0	4.2	9.3	18.3
\$1.100 to \$1.149.....	29.8	15.3		71.1	6.7	
\$1.150 to \$1.199.....	8.1			24.4	.4	
\$1.200 to \$1.249.....	6.7	17.0				
\$1.250 to \$1.299.....	.1			.2		
\$1.300 to \$1.349.....	(¹)			.1		
All earnings.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

A more satisfactory method of measuring the extent of regional differences involves a comparison of average earnings for a selected group of individual occupations. Comparative wage data are presented by region in table 4 for workers of all classes or grades in 38 crafts and for first-class workers in 16 crafts. Among the broad occupational groups, covering all classes of workers, the highest wages for 30 of the 38 occupations were paid in Pacific Coast yards. The Atlantic Coast ranked first in only 6 occupations and the Inland region in only 2 occupations. The high level of earnings on the West Coast, as indicated by general occupational averages covering craftsmen of all classes, was very largely due to the greater proportion of first-class workers in this region. Of the craftsmen in the 38 occupations, 82 percent on the West Coast were classified as first class. This compares with 27 percent in the Atlantic region, 57 percent in the Gulf region, 60 percent in the Great Lakes region, and 43 percent in the Inland region.

With respect to first-class workers only, the Atlantic Coast region had the highest average earnings in 11 of the 16 occupations for which data are shown in table 4. In the 5 remaining occupations, Pacific Coast yards were highest in 4, and the Gulf Coast yards were highest in 1 occupation. The high level of earnings in the Atlantic Coast region was due primarily to the influence of incentive methods of wage payment.

TABLE 4.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Workers in Selected Occupations in Ship-Construction Yards, by Region, Fall of 1942

Occupation and class	Atlantic Coast	Gulf Coast	Pacific Coast	Great Lakes	Inland
<i>All classes</i>					
Anglesmiths.....	\$1. 165	\$1. 227	\$1. 273	\$0. 954	\$1. 284
Apprentices.....	. 824	. 815	1. 019	. 672	. 795
Blacksmiths.....	1. 141	1. 156	1. 165	1. 147	. 983
Blacksmiths' helpers.....	. 880	. 751	. 967	. 871	. 600
Boilermakers.....	1. 124	1. 093	1. 173	1. 150	1. 121
Boilermakers' helpers.....	. 929	. 706	. 950	. 835	. 928
Burners, acetylene (including gas).....	1. 123	1. 100	1. 179	1. 093	1. 093
Burners' helpers, acetylene (including gas).....	. 862	. 702	. 950	. 797	. 879
Carpenters (shipwrights).....	1. 035	1. 135	1. 197	1. 094	1. 074
Carpenters' helpers.....	. 802	. 680	. 943	. 811	. 812
Chippers and caulkers (including foundry chippers).....	1. 219	1. 124	1. 180	1. 121	1. 116
Crane operators (all types).....	1. 154	1. 177	1. 286	1. 116	1. 161
Draftsmen (senior and junior).....	1. 382	1. 163	1. 321	1. 121	1. 301
Electricians.....	1. 107	1. 154	1. 191	1. 126	1. 013
Electricians' helpers.....	. 853	. 682	. 955	. 796	. 819
Erectors.....	1. 024	1. 081	1. 147	. 976	. 966
Foremen (including assistant foremen and quartermen).....	1. 640	1. 428	1. 537	1. 372	1. 363
Helpers, not elsewhere classified.....	. 733	. 669	. 941	. 718	. 786
Laborers (excluding tank cleaners and janitors).....	. 718	. 611	. 880	. 707	. 743
Leaders.....	1. 357	1. 322	1. 335	1. 264	1. 279
Learners.....	. 891	. 740	. 950	. 906	. 697
Loftsmen.....	1. 218	1. 153	1. 313	1. 120	1. 224
Machinists, shop and outside.....	1. 138	1. 123	1. 187	1. 109	1. 052
Machinists' helpers, shop and outside.....	. 840	. 695	. 951	. 791	. 824
Painters, brush and spray.....	1. 176	1. 143	1. 119	1. 070	1. 050
Pipe fitters (including plumbers).....	1. 092	1. 112	1. 183	1. 119	1. 077
Pipe fitters' helpers (including plumbers' helpers).....	. 864	. 702	. 949	. 798	. 807
Plate-shop machine operators.....	1. 108	1. 077	1. 149	1. 068	1. 110
Plate-shop machine operators' helpers.....	. 867	. 713	. 950	. 834	. 830
Riggers, yard and crane.....	. 901	. 736	1. 109	. 967	1. 071
Sheet-metal workers (including tinsmiths).....	1. 146	1. 121	1. 194	1. 163	1. 022
Sheet-metal workers' helpers.....	. 882	. 671	. 956	. 811	. 848
Ship fitters.....	1. 100	1. 079	1. 172	1. 097	1. 028
Ship fitters' helpers.....	. 848	. 682	. 960	. 799	. 742
Tracers.....	. 754	. 837	. 902	. 759	1. 017
Watchmen and guards.....	. 760	. 665	. 901	. 767	. 713
Welders, acetylene and electric.....	1. 231	1. 106	1. 165	1. 093	1. 072
Welders' helpers, acetylene and electric.....	. 827	. 748	. 967	. 777	. 782
<i>First class</i>					
Blacksmiths.....	1. 222	1. 214	1. 205	1. 193	1. 100
Boilermakers.....	1. 360	1. 200	1. 200	1. 200	1. 194
Burners, acetylene (including gas).....	1. 222	1. 209	1. 200	1. 162	1. 198
Carpenters (shipwrights).....	1. 142	1. 196	1. 203	1. 186	1. 162
Chippers and caulkers (including foundry chippers).....	1. 306	1. 200	1. 204	1. 180	1. 186
Crane operators (all types).....	1. 193	1. 185	1. 290	1. 177	1. 224
Electricians.....	1. 266	1. 198	1. 206	1. 180	1. 177
Erectors.....	1. 198	1. 124	1. 206	1. 122	. 931
Loftsmen.....	1. 402	1. 406	1. 325	1. 197	1. 303
Machinists, shop and outside.....	1. 291	1. 200	1. 203	1. 175	1. 186
Painters, brush and spray.....	1. 293	1. 192	1. 202	1. 142	1. 128
Pipe fitters (including plumbers).....	1. 251	1. 198	1. 200	1. 168	1. 171
Riggers, yard and crane.....	1. 025	1. 080	1. 118	1. 075	1. 081
Sheet-metal workers (including tinsmiths).....	1. 385	1. 199	1. 204	1. 198	1. 225
Ship fitters.....	1. 255	1. 203	1. 203	1. 177	1. 189
Welders, acetylene and electric.....	1. 516	1. 260	1. 200	1. 184	1. 174

Application of Stabilization Program

Occupational averages for first-class workers presented earlier in this analysis tend to show that the minimum wage of \$1.20 provided by the zone standard agreements for the Atlantic, Gulf, Pacific, and Great Lakes shipbuilding areas has been widely applied. There is also evidence of the payment of this rate in the Inland area, although the stabilization program does not extend to this area.

In the four regions subject to the stabilization program, the wage data for November 1942 indicate that first-class workers in 25 crafts were considered "standard skilled mechanics" and received the minimum stabilization rate of \$1.20. These crafts are as follows:

Anglesmiths	Machinists, shop and outside
Blacksmiths	Molders, foundry
Boilermakers	Painters, brush and spray
Burners, acetylene	Patternmakers
Carpenters (shipwrights)	Pipe fitters
Chippers and caulkers	Plate-shop machine operators
Coppersmiths	Riggers, ship
Crane operators	Riveters
Electricians	Sheet-metal workers
Furnacemen	Ship fitters
Joiners	Tool and die makers
Layers-out	Welders, acetylene and electric
Loftsmen	

Supervisory and specialized workers, such as draftsmen, have been excluded from the above list, as their rates generally are not closely related to the application of any regulatory measures. Drillers have also been eliminated from the list, as rates considerably below \$1.20 were very often paid to first-class workers in this craft. The higher earnings for drillers in the Atlantic Coast region result from incentive-wage methods rather than from application of the zone minimum.

In the Pacific Coast region the average earnings for first-class workers in each of the listed occupations for which figures can be shown equal or exceed \$1.20 an hour. In addition, first-class erectors are also subject to the \$1.20 minimum in this area.

All but 1 of the 25 occupations enumerated above show average earnings for first-class workers approaching or exceeding \$1.20 an hour in the Atlantic Coast region. Carpenters, however, averaged only \$1.142 an hour. Despite this relatively low figure, most yards paid the zone minimum to these craftsmen. The lower figure shown for this occupation is the result of low rates paid to large numbers of carpenters employed in a few yards engaged in building wooden boats. Generally these yards do not subscribe to the zone standard agreement.

Among Gulf Coast yards, the average earnings of first-class workers in all but 2 of the 25 occupations were either relatively close to or exceeded the stabilization minimum. Joiners and plate-shop machine operators averaged \$1.149 and \$1.177, respectively. Sub-standard rates in a few yards accounted for these lower average earnings.

In only three occupations—boilermakers, patternmakers, and riveters—did first-class workers in the Great Lakes region average as much as or more than \$1.20 an hour. In 14 other occupations, however, first-class workers received average wages within 4 cents of the minimum. These differences can be attributed, in most cases, to the lower rates paid in a few of the yards and to the practice in some yards

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of hiring first-class workers at less than \$1.20 an hour for a short period of time. The low earnings of ship riggers (\$1.016) resulted from employment of most of these workers in a few yards at sub-standard rates. In general, however, it is reasonable to conclude that the zone agreement minimum for this region was applied, at least in a modified form, in most of the yards.

Earnings Trend Between Spring and Fall, 1942

In the fall of 1942, as table 5 indicates, the average hourly straight-time earnings of day-shift workers in ship-construction yards for the country as a whole, \$1.044, were 8.8 percent (8.4 cents) higher than the average of 96.0 cents an hour reported in the spring of 1942. These figures are based on data for all of the yards covered in the two periods.

TABLE 5.—Average Hourly Straight-Time Earnings of Day-Shift Ship-Construction Workers in Selected Occupations, All Yards and Identical Yards, by Region

Region	All yards			Identical yards		
	Average hourly earnings		Increase (cents)	Average hourly earnings		Increase (cents)
	Fall	Spring		Fall	Spring	
United States.....	\$1.044	\$0.960	8.4	\$1.069	\$0.959	11.0
Atlantic.....	1.048	.966	8.2	1.070	.969	10.1
Gulf.....	.907	.776	13.1	.892	.761	13.1
Pacific.....	1.135	1.034	10.1	1.138	1.035	10.3
Great Lakes.....	.994	.861	13.3	1.001	.863	13.8
Inland.....	.974	.795	17.9	.958	.795	16.3

As table 5 shows, the largest increase in earnings among the regions occurred in the Inland area, where the average rose from 79.5 cents in the spring to 97.4 cents in the fall of 1942. This area employs a relatively small proportion of the workers in the industry. In the two major ship-construction areas, Atlantic and Pacific Coast regions, comparison of the earnings data relating to all plants for the two periods reveals the smallest increases, 8.2 and 10.1 cents an hour, respectively. Changes in the Gulf Coast and Great Lakes areas were practically identical, amounting to 13.1 cents in the former and to 13.3 cents in the latter region.

It should be pointed out that the above figures for the two periods are based on somewhat different samples, and may not precisely measure the changes that did take place between the spring and fall of 1942. Because of the rapid expansion of the industry, the sample used in the survey made in the fall was considerably larger than that used in the spring of 1942.

Wage data for identical plants probably provide the most accurate measure of wage changes in the industry since the spring of 1942. Figures for identical yards, presented in table 5, are based upon a substantial proportion of the total number of yards in each region.

It will be seen that the increases shown for identical yards reporting in both the spring and fall of 1942 in the Gulf, Pacific, and Great Lakes regions closely approximate the increases shown for all yards reporting in the respective regions in the two periods. In the Atlantic Coast

area, however, the increase for identical yards was higher by 1.9 cents than that shown for all yards in this region. On the other hand, data for the identical yards in the Inland area show an increase of 16.3 cents or 1.6 cents less than that for all yards. The general increase for the identical yards combined was 2.6 cents greater than the increase shown for all yards.

A more extensive application of incentive-wage methods accounts in a large part for the higher absolute change based on identical yards in the Atlantic Coast area. In general, incentive-wage payment plans were not found in the additional yards covered in the fall survey. The inclusion of these yards in the fall sample naturally tended to lower the general average for the region. In the Great Lakes region, a number of the yards added to the sample in the fall of 1942 had higher wage structures than those covered in the spring survey. This tended to raise somewhat the average for that region.

In the four regions the absolute increases were greater than those provided for under the zone stabilization agreements (8 cents in all regions except on the Gulf Coast where a sliding scale of from 9 cents for the lowest to 13 cents for the highest paid workers was adopted). Increases over and above those provided for in the stabilization agreements may be attributed in part to the upgrading of workers and in part to the acceptance of the stabilization program by a greater number of yards. The sharp increase in average earnings in the Inland region, which, as previously stated, does not come within the scope of the wage-stabilization program, has resulted from a general raising of the rates in this region to levels relatively comparable to those found in other areas.

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Hours and Earnings in the Fertilizer Industry, January 1943¹

Summary

WAGE earners in the fertilizer industry earned, on an average, 55.0 cents an hour, exclusive of premium pay for overtime, in January 1943. There was a marked regional difference in wage levels, average hourly earnings being 76.5 cents in the North and 45.2 cents in the South. Negroes, who make up a large part of the working force in the industry and are usually found in jobs with lower skill requirements, averaged 45.9 cents an hour as compared with 72.5 cents for white employees. Office workers averaged 70.7 cents an hour.

That the wage level in the fertilizer industry is relatively low is indicated by the fact that 2.0 percent of the wage earners in January 1943 were paid less than 30 cents an hour, 21 percent earned from 30 to 40 cents, inclusive, while approximately one-half of the employees received less than 47.5 cents an hour.

Characteristics of the Industry

The fertilizer industry is made up of "establishments primarily engaged in the manufacture of commercial fertilizer and superphosphates or mixing of fertilizer materials."² Among the establishments excluded from the industry are those engaged in the merchandising of fertilizer materials in the natural state or of tankage from meat-packing establishments used without further processing, and in the mining and grinding of phosphate rock for sale to fertilizer plants.

The industry in 1939 consisted of 764 establishments, according to the Census of Manufactures, but the average number of wage earners employed during the year was only 18,744. The plants were scattered among 39 States, with a marked concentration, however, in the Southern area. Fifty-four percent of the total number of wage earners were employed in plants situated in Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, and Florida.²

The majority of fertilizer plants have few employees. Of the 764 plants in the industry in 1939, 226 had fewer than 5 wage earners; 274 had from 6 to 20 wage earners; 173 had from 21 to 50 wage earners; and 91 had 51 or more wage earners. Although most of the plants are relatively small, concentration of ownership is an important factor in the industry. A few companies, each operating a number of plants, account for a very appreciable segment of total output and play an important role in the determination of industrial policy. A larger group of companies, operating two plants or more, may be considered intermediate in size.

An integrated fertilizer plant consists of three manufacturing units—an acid department, a superphosphate department, and a mixing department. Sulphuric acid is manufactured in the acid department

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Wage Analysis by Edward B. Morris.

² Census of Manufactures, 1939.

for use of the superphosphate department. In the superphosphate, wet-mixing, or acidulation department, phosphate rock is ground and mixed with the sulphuric acid. The mixture is dumped into a concrete "den" and left there until the chemical reaction is completed. In the dry-mixing department, the superphosphate is combined with other purchased fertilizer materials in accordance with the desired formulas. The various ingredients are mixed thoroughly to secure uniformity and the resulting product is bagged and then tagged for shipment.

The principal kinds of fertilizer plants may be described in terms of these departments. Acid-making plants have all three departments. Superphosphate plants, which purchase their acid requirements, ordinarily have superphosphate and dry-mixing departments, although superphosphate production is included in the fertilizer industry whether or not the plant produces mixed fertilizers. Dry-mixing plants purchase their superphosphate and conduct only the dry-mixing operations. Tabulated with this latter group are a few plants that process ammoniates (nitrogen-bearing materials) in addition to mixing fertilizers.

The fertilizer industry exhibits wide seasonal variations in production and employment. Farmers generally buy their fertilizers only a short time before applying them to the soil. The more common formulas are usually mixed in advance, but much of the mixing is done to the order of the user. Consequently, there is a marked peak of activity in the spring and a somewhat lesser peak in the fall. The spring peak starts early in the year in the deep South and moves northward thereafter. While the spring peak may be delayed or advanced by the weather, it occurs usually during March or April. The usual fall peak is in September or October. This seasonal variation is clearly indicated by the Bureau's index of employment in the fertilizer industry for the years 1939 to 1943 (table 1). During these years the index numbers for March and April have been substantially higher, except in 1942, than those for either February or May, and, except in one year, the index numbers for September and October have been somewhat higher than those for either August or November.

TABLE 1.—Indexes of Employment in the Fertilizer Industry, by Months, 1939-43

[1939=100]

Month	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
January.....	96.8	98.9	97.8	113.2	114.5
February.....	100.9	102.9	106.5	144.6	138.2
March.....	137.6	143.2	133.0	156.7	158.6
April.....	166.6	164.6	168.7	147.1	¹ 154.8
May.....	116.7	121.3	119.7	118.8	-----
June.....	74.4	83.6	86.6	96.2	-----
July.....	69.3	75.4	85.1	88.5	-----
August.....	69.8	76.4	84.6	91.8	-----
September.....	92.7	90.2	103.9	103.0	-----
October.....	92.7	91.2	97.8	102.6	-----
November.....	86.1	86.6	95.3	103.9	-----
December.....	96.3	89.7	100.4	109.4	-----

¹ Preliminary.

Seasonal fluctuation in employment has been accompanied by an interesting variation in the level of average hourly earnings. Hourly earnings for the spring peak tend to fall below earnings for earlier and later months. For example, in each of the years shown, the level of hourly earnings for March was from 1.7 to 4.4 cents below the level for January of the same year, and from 4.6 to 6.0 cents below the average hourly earnings for May (table 2). This phenomenon may be explained by the hiring of additional workers at minimum rates during the busy season, and by the fact that increased activity occurs earlier in the South, where wage rates are generally lower than elsewhere. The fall peak is less pronounced in terms of the employment index, and has a less consistent effect on the level of hourly earnings.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings¹ in the Fertilizer Industry, by Months, 1939-43

Month	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943
January.....	\$0.393	\$0.420	\$0.429	\$0.495	\$0.573
February.....	.379	.404	.421	.470	.551
March.....	.349	.384	.408	.478	.552
April.....	.349	.379	.417	.498	.586
May.....	.409	.430	.468	.529
June.....	.429	.443	.486	.549
July.....	.444	.449	.494	.591
August.....	.446	.466	.517	.601
September.....	.442	.459	.514	.593
October.....	.420	.442	.501	.589
November.....	.451	.451	.507	.583
December.....	.428	.435	.501	.579

¹ Including additional earnings from penalty rates for overtime.

² Preliminary.

Union Organization in the Fertilizer Industry

Slightly over one-fourth of the workers in the fertilizer industry work under the terms of union agreements. The greater proportion of workers under agreement are found in California, Florida, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee and Virginia. Little or no union organization prevails in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Michigan, New Jersey, North Carolina, and South Carolina.

The principal unions in this industry are the National Council of Chemical and Allied Industries Unions (composed of federal labor unions directly affiliated with the A. F. of L.), and District 50, United Mine Workers of America, which is not affiliated with either the A. F. of L. or the C. I. O. The former union represents slightly over half of the workers under agreement; the latter approximately one-third. A number of other unions have some representation in the industry.

Methods of Wage Payment

Wage payment on a time basis predominates in the fertilizer industry. In January 1943, all but 1.5 percent of the plant workers were paid on an hourly, weekly, or monthly basis. One percent of the workers were paid piece rates, while the earnings of the remaining one-half of 1 percent of the workers were determined by some other form of incentive wage system.

Practices with respect to payment for overtime work cannot be determined precisely from the information secured during the course of the survey. On the basis of the wage data collected, however, certain inferences can be drawn.³ Thus, 61 percent of the plants in which overtime hours were worked during the pay-roll period, and in which overtime pay practice could be determined, paid time and one-half after 40 hours; in 16 percent of the plants slightly different practices with respect to overtime premium pay prevailed. Straight-time rates for overtime hours were paid in 23 percent of the plants.

Only straight-time hourly earnings are shown in this report. Weekly earnings, however, include the additional compensation derived from extra rates for overtime.

Nature and Scope of Survey

This survey of wages and hours in the fertilizer industry was undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as part of its established program of securing basic information on the wage structure of American industries. A previous survey of wages in this industry was made by the Bureau in 1938.⁴ The present survey was specifically requested by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Division of the U. S. Department of Labor, for use in a minimum-wage determination under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Because of the urgent need for current data, a pay-roll period during January 1943 was selected for study. It will be recalled that by comparison with the peak spring and fall seasons, employment in January is substantially lower and the general level of wages somewhat higher.

The basic data for the present survey were obtained very largely by means of mail questionnaires which were sent to practically all of the firms in the industry. A few of the larger firms were visited by representatives of the Bureau for the purpose of obtaining their assistance in the compilation of the data desired. Over 700 reports were received. Many of the returns, however, were from firms that had ceased business, employed no wage earners, or were improperly classified as being in the fertilizer industry. A relatively small number of usable returns were received too late for inclusion in the tabulation, or were omitted for other reasons. The data presented in this report are based on returns from 308 plants with 10,226 factory workers and 679 office employees.

The information requested on the questionnaire for individual workers included such items as race, sex, job title, shift, total hours worked, rate of pay, earnings at the regular rate of pay, and total earnings including extra or premium overtime earnings. Information as to the type of plant and whether the plant shipped goods outside of the State was also requested.

³ The data collected for each worker included total hours actually worked, rate of pay, earnings at regular rates for total hours shown, and total earnings including premium pay for overtime. It was thus possible to determine the rate of premium pay in most of the plants in which overtime hours were worked.

⁴ Serial No. R. 864: Wages and Hours in the Fertilizer Industry, 1938.

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Average Hourly Earnings of Plant Employees

The average straight-time hourly earnings of plant workers in the 308 establishments covered in the survey amounted to 55.0 cents ¹ in January 1943 (table 3). Considerable light is thrown on the composition of this average by the distribution of individual earnings shown in table 4. Thus, 23.2 percent of the workers earned less than 40.0 cents an hour and almost as large a proportion of workers had earnings within the 2.5 cent interval from 40.0 to 42.5 cents. Although 55.5 percent of the workers received 42.5 cents or more an hour, only 13.7 percent earned as much as 77.5 cents.

TABLE 3.—Number of Plants, Number of Workers, and Average Hourly Earnings of Plant Workers in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, State, and Race, January 1943

Region and State	Number of plants	Total		White		Negro	
		Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
United States.....	308	10,226	\$0.550	3,279	\$0.725	6,947	\$0.450
North.....	113	3,166	.765	2,073	.806	1,093	.679
California.....	16	174	.787	157	.778	17	(¹)
Connecticut.....	4	82	.630	24	.580	58	.652
Illinois.....	4	175	.771	121	.786	54	.733
Indiana.....	4	80	.549	45	.530	35	.578
Maine.....	5	105	.562	104	.561	1	(¹)
Maryland.....	11	694	.778	203	.929	491	.712
Massachusetts.....	6	148	.805	141	.808	7	(¹)
New Jersey.....	9	485	.749	369	.797	116	.583
New York.....	9	182	.756	155	.777	27	.626
Ohio.....	13	330	.709	196	.737	134	.665
Pennsylvania.....	15	271	.702	143	.708	128	.694
Other States ²	17	440	.935	415	.954	25	.443
South.....	195	7,060	.452	1,206	.595	5,854	.418
Alabama.....	16	603	.378	82	.479	521	.360
Arkansas.....	4	94	.383	11	(¹)	83	.377
Florida.....	30	1,306	.513	335	.717	971	.438
Georgia.....	42	1,266	.369	199	.454	1,067	.353
Mississippi.....	7	348	.372	51	.432	297	.362
North Carolina.....	33	948	.428	108	.543	840	.410
South Carolina.....	25	964	.413	80	.612	884	.391
Tennessee.....	5	198	.449	101	.472	97	.425
Texas.....	9	108	.340	35	.369	73	.325
Virginia.....	20	1,131	.599	201	.709	930	.570
Other States ³	4	94	.335	3	(¹)	91	.334

¹ Number of workers too small to justify presentation of an average.

² Includes 1 plant in Arizona, 2 in Delaware, 1 in District of Columbia, 1 in Iowa, 2 in Michigan, 1 in Minnesota, 1 in Missouri, 1 in Montana, 1 in Nevada, 1 in Oregon, 1 in Rhode Island, 1 in Vermont, and 3 in Washington.

³ Includes 1 plant in Kentucky, and 3 in Louisiana.

Wide regional variations in hourly earnings exist in the industry. Wage earners in the North earned an average of 76.5 cents an hour in January 1943, as against an average of 45.2 cents for workers in the South. In the North, 70.1 percent of the workers received 67.5 cents an hour or more, and 96.7 percent earned at least 42.5 cents an hour. The corresponding percentages in the South were 6.2 and 30.6.

To some extent, the regional difference in hourly earnings was due to the lower earnings of Negro workers, who accounted for 83 percent of the labor force in the South as against approximately one-third of the labor force in the North. These differences were also strongly

⁴ The inclusion of the extra earnings resulting from premium overtime pay would increase this average by 3.7 cents.

influenced by the fact that Negro workers tend to be employed in the lower-paid occupations, whereas white workers are generally found in the supervisory and higher-paid occupations. White workers enjoyed an advantage in earnings over Negroes of 12.7 cents in the North and 17.7 cents in the South. The general difference in hourly earnings in favor of Northern workers amounted to 21.1 cents for white workers and to 26.1 cents for colored.

Although the general North-South wage difference is very marked, intraregional variations in levels of earnings are also relatively wide. Thus, as table 3 shows, average hourly earnings by State in the North ranged from 54.9 cents in Indiana to 80.5 cents in Massachusetts. The range in the South was from 34 cents in Texas to 59.9 cents in Virginia.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Plant Workers in Fertilizer Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings, Region, and Race, January 1943

Average hourly earnings	United States			North			South		
	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro
Under 30.0 cents.....	2.0	1.2	2.4	(1)	(1)	-----	2.9	3.2	2.8
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	8.3	3.6	10.5	(1)	-----	0.1	12.1	9.7	12.4
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	.1	(1)	.1	-----	-----	-----	.1	.1	.1
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	1.4	.5	1.8	0.1	0.1	-----	1.9	1.2	2.1
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	9.9	2.8	13.3	1.2	.5	2.6	13.9	6.7	15.4
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	1.5	.3	2.0	-----	-----	-----	2.1	.7	2.4
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	21.3	5.3	29.0	2.0	1.1	3.7	30.2	12.6	33.8
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	6.9	3.7	8.3	1.6	1.6	1.6	9.2	7.3	9.6
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	6.2	5.9	6.4	5.7	5.6	5.8	6.5	6.3	6.5
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	6.6	4.9	7.4	4.3	4.9	3.1	7.7	5.1	8.2
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	3.8	5.2	3.1	6.3	5.6	7.7	2.6	4.6	2.2
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	5.9	6.7	5.5	8.7	5.8	14.1	4.6	8.3	3.9
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	4.4	7.3	3.1	11.0	7.2	18.1	1.5	7.5	.2
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	8.0	14.0	5.2	23.3	18.5	32.4	1.1	6.0	.1
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	3.2	8.1	1.0	7.9	9.3	5.2	1.1	5.7	.2
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	1.6	3.7	.6	4.2	4.4	3.8	.4	2.5	(1)
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	2.2	6.2	.2	5.5	7.9	1.1	.6	3.4	.1
92.5 and under 97.5 cents.....	1.6	4.8	.1	4.2	6.2	.5	.4	2.6	-----
97.5 and under 102.5 cents.....	1.2	3.7	(1)	3.3	4.9	.1	.3	1.6	-----
102.5 and under 107.5 cents.....	2.3	7.2	(1)	6.5	10.0	-----	.4	2.5	-----
107.5 cents and over.....	1.6	4.9	(1)	4.2	6.4	.1	.4	2.4	(1)
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	10, 226	3, 279	6, 947	3, 166	2, 073	1, 093	7, 060	1, 206	5, 854
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0. 550	\$0. 725	\$0. 459	\$0. 765	\$0. 806	\$0. 679	\$0. 452	\$0. 595	\$0. 418

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Because the minimum-wage levels prescribed by the Fair Labor Standards Act⁶ affect only those plants engaged in interstate commerce, plants not so engaged might be expected to have somewhat lower average hourly earnings. To test this assumption, the plants included in the survey were classified on the basis of whether or not they make shipments in interstate commerce. Table 5 shows a distribution of employees by average hourly earnings in these two plant groups. A marked difference in hourly earnings is evident, amounting to 17.2 cents in the North and 10.7 cents in the South. It will be observed that more than 11 percent of the workers in the intrastate plants in the South earned less than 30 cents an hour in January 1943.

⁶ At the time of the wage survey, the fertilizer industry was subject to the statutory minimum wage of 30 cents an hour under the Fair Labor Standards Act. In addition, minima of 30 cents in the South, 50 cents in the Far West, and 40 cents in the remainder of the country had been established under the Public Contracts Act for production on Government contracts amounting to \$10,000 or more.

TABLE 5.—Percentage Distribution of Fertilizer-Plant Workers by Average Hourly Earnings, Region, and Whether Products Are Shipped Outside State, January 1943

Average hourly earnings	United States			North			South		
	Total ¹	Plants shipping outside State	Plants not shipping outside State	Total ²	Plants shipping outside State	Plants not shipping outside State	Total ³	Plants shipping outside State	Plants not shipping outside State
Under 30.0 cents.....	2.0	(4)	9.3	(4)	—	0.3	2.9	0.1	11.4
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	8.3	5.3	19.5	(4)	(4)	—	12.0	8.0	23.9
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	.1	(4)	.1	—	—	—	.1	.1	.1
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	1.4	1.6	.4	0.1	(4)	.3	1.9	2.5	.5
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	9.9	8.8	13.8	1.2	1.4	—	14.0	12.5	17.0
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	1.5	1.4	1.5	—	—	—	2.1	2.2	1.9
40.0 and under 42.5 cents ⁴	21.3	20.7	24.3	2.0	1.8	3.2	30.2	30.3	29.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	6.9	6.8	7.2	1.6	1.4	2.5	9.2	9.6	8.2
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	6.2	5.6	8.9	5.7	3.2	23.0	6.5	6.8	5.7
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	6.6	7.5	3.3	4.3	2.6	15.5	7.7	10.1	.5
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	3.8	4.0	3.1	6.3	5.1	14.7	2.6	3.4	.5
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	5.9	7.0	1.8	8.7	8.7	8.5	4.6	6.1	.2
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	4.4	5.0	2.3	11.0	11.1	11.2	1.5	1.9	.2
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	8.0	9.6	2.2	23.3	25.2	10.2	1.1	1.4	.3
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	3.2	3.9	.9	7.9	8.4	4.0	1.1	1.5	.2
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	1.6	1.9	.4	4.2	4.6	1.5	.4	.5	.2
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	2.2	2.6	.4	5.5	6.0	2.3	.6	.9	—
92.5 and under 97.5 cents.....	1.6	2.0	.1	4.2	4.8	.5	.4	.6	.1
97.5 and under 102.5 cents.....	1.2	1.4	.4	3.3	3.5	1.5	.3	.3	.1
102.5 and under 107.5 cents.....	2.3	2.9	.1	6.5	7.4	.5	.4	.6	—
107.5 cents and over.....	1.6	2.0	(4)	4.2	4.8	.3	.4	.6	—
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	10,226	8,021	2,167	3,166	2,760	400	7,060	5,261	1,767
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.550	\$0.584	\$0.419	\$0.765	\$0.787	\$0.615	\$0.452	\$0.478	\$0.371

¹ Includes 38 workers in 3 plants which did not report whether they shipped outside the State.² Includes 6 workers in 1 plant which did not report whether they shipped outside the State.³ Includes 32 workers in 2 plants which did not report whether they shipped outside the State.⁴ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Average Hourly Earnings as Related to Community Size, Company Affiliation, and Type of Product

Levels of hourly earnings in the fertilizer industry differed considerably by size of community in January 1943. In the industry as a whole, the average hourly earnings of workers in plants in communities with a population of less than 10,000 amounted to 42.1 cents, as compared with an average of 45.1 cents for plants in communities of 10,000 and under 100,000 population, and 66.6 cents in communities of 100,000 and over. In the North, the range in level of earnings between the smallest and largest community size was from 60.6 cents to 80.1 cents, or a difference of 19.5 cents, while in the South the range was from 36.5 cents to 54.8 cents, a difference of 18.3 cents an hour (table 6).

TABLE 6.—*Number of Plants, Number of Workers, and Average Hourly Earnings in Fertilizer Industry, by Region and Size of Community, January 1943*

Region and size of community (population)	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
United States.....	308	10,226	\$0.550
Under 10,000.....	123	2,319	.421
10,000 and under 100,000.....	83	2,983	.451
100,000 and over.....	102	4,924	.696
North.....	113	3,166	.765
Under 10,000.....	34	513	.606
10,000 and under 100,000.....	15	320	.761
100,000 and over.....	64	2,333	.801
South.....	195	7,060	.452
Under 10,000.....	89	1,806	.365
10,000 and under 100,000.....	68	2,663	.411
100,000 and over.....	38	2,591	.548

In terms of company affiliation, average hourly earnings in the large and intermediate companies⁷ were considerably higher than earnings in single-plant companies. In the North, the large companies led with average hourly earnings of 83.3 cents, while in the South the intermediate companies had the highest average, 53.7 cents (table 7).

From the standpoint of type of manufacture, acid-mixing plants had higher average hourly earnings than either superphosphate or dry-mixing plants in both regions. In the industry as a whole, acid-mixing plants paid an average of 61.0 cents per hour, superphosphate plants an average of 54.2 cents, and dry-mixing plants an average of 47.7 cents.

TABLE 7.—*Number of Plants, Number of Workers and Average Hourly Earnings in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, Size of Company, and Type of Plant, January 1943*

Size of company and type of plant	United States			North			South		
	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings	Number of plants	Number of workers	Average hourly earnings
Large companies.....	74	3,813	\$0.591	20	1,291	\$0.833	54	2,522	\$0.462
Intermediate companies.....	75	3,070	.601	40	1,030	.735	35	2,040	.537
Small companies.....	159	3,343	.457	53	845	.694	106	2,498	.374
Acid-mixing plants.....	42	4,560	.610	12	1,387	.862	30	3,173	.499
Superphosphate plants.....	38	1,597	.542	14	614	.742	24	983	.416
Dry-mixing plants.....	228	4,069	.477	87	1,165	.649	141	2,904	.406

It should be pointed out that the differences in plant average wage levels by size of community, company affiliation, and type of plant do not necessarily reflect accurately the differences in wage rates. For example, acid-mixing plants have a more complex occupational structure than either of the other two types of plants, and the higher wage levels in these plants mirror, at least in part, the somewhat larger employment of relatively higher-skilled workers. Moreover, to take another instance, the wage advantage apparently enjoyed by workers in communities of more than 10,000 inhabitants probably is due, in some measure, to the fact that acid-mixing plants are found mainly in the larger communities.

⁷ As previously pointed out, the term "large companies" refers to a small group of multiplant firms that exert a dominant influence on the industry; the term "intermediate companies" refers to a larger group of firms with two or more plants each, but not comparable in size with the large companies.

Hourly and Weekly Earnings and Hours of Labor, by Occupation

Table 8 provides a detailed picture, by region and race, of average hourly earnings in the principal occupations found in the fertilizer industry. This same table also shows average hours worked in each occupation as well as average weekly earnings. It is important to notice that the data on average weekly earnings include premium overtime compensation.

TABLE 8.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, Occupation, and Race, January 1943

Region and occupation	Number of workers			Average hourly earnings			Average weekly hours			Average weekly earnings ¹		
	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro
United States.....	10,226	3,279	6,947	\$0.550	\$0.725	\$0.459	40.6	43.3	39.4	\$23.82	\$33.63	\$19.20
Acid-chamber men.....	153	63	90	.568	.740	.460	48.5	45.4	50.6	29.83	35.58	25.80
Baggers.....	227	45	182	.521	.622	.498	41.9	38.7	42.6	22.93	25.19	22.37
Bag printers.....	77	29	48	.518	.608	.466	42.1	40.5	43.1	22.89	25.45	21.34
Bag sewers.....	242	44	198	.524	.660	.493	43.2	43.9	43.0	23.93	30.96	22.37
Bag stowers.....	149	21	128	.451	.573	.432	38.0	36.4	38.3	17.98	21.71	17.37
Car runners and conveyor operators.....	130	23	107	.493	.716	.446	45.0	44.3	45.2	23.77	32.92	21.80
Carpenters.....	107	96	11	.814	.829	(?)	46.3	46.6	(?)	40.25	41.97	(?)
Den diggers.....	242	10	232	.418	(?)	.409	41.7	(?)	41.6	18.51	(?)	18.11
Dry-mixer operators.....	170	52	118	.543	.609	.514	46.3	46.5	46.3	26.90	30.35	25.38
Foremen.....	496	453	43	.795	.820	.584	48.3	47.5	57.2	40.62	40.89	37.68
Laborers.....	4,526	1,077	3,449	.529	.735	.461	39.2	40.6	38.7	22.12	32.14	19.00
Maintenance workers, miscellaneous.....	159		14	.937	.969	(?)	47.0	46.9	(?)	48.37	49.82	(?)
Maintenance men's helpers.....	84	145	37	.633	.747	.498	47.2	45.7	49.1	32.76	37.34	26.95
Mechanics.....	118	47	9	.839	.869	(?)	49.7	49.5	(?)	45.98	47.38	(?)
Rock grinders.....	84	109	56	.557	.749	.462	50.4	49.9	50.6	31.31	42.14	25.90
Scalemen.....	207	28	131	.462	.547	.414	42.0	41.1	42.5	20.65	23.73	18.86
Shovelers, hand.....	837	76	766	.459	.636	.426	34.6	34.8	34.5	16.60	22.99	15.42
Superphosphate mixers.....	114		72	.590	.689	.538	46.5	43.2	48.5	29.82	32.03	28.53
Truckers, hand.....	898	42	779	.412	.538	.391	33.4	35.8	33.1	14.26	20.06	13.37
Truck and tractor drivers.....	267	119	153	.532	.576	.500	48.3	47.8	48.7	27.92	29.64	26.64
Watchmen.....	308	114	34	.476	.485	.398	45.7	46.1	42.4	23.12	23.78	17.78
Miscellaneous plant workers.....	631	274	350	.659	.814	.534	43.7	44.0	43.4	30.80	38.38	24.72
North.....	3,166	281	1,093	.765	.806	.679	41.0	42.2	38.7	33.20	36.28	27.38
Acid-chamber men.....	40	2,073	5	.916	.924	(?)	41.7	42.1	(?)	39.48	40.29	(?)
Baggers.....	92	35	57	.684	.688	.682	41.4	39.1	42.9	29.63	28.10	30.58
Bag printers.....	18	35	4	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)	(?)
Bag sewers.....	86	14	48	.710	.694	.724	43.4	44.2	42.7	32.45	32.80	32.24
Bag stowers.....	27	38	15	.684	(?)	(?)	39.4	(?)	(?)	27.79	(?)	(?)
Car runners and conveyor operators.....	42		22	.764	.782	.746	41.1	43.3	39.2	32.42	34.98	30.09
Carpenters.....	39	20		1.002	1.002		42.7	42.7		45.08	45.08	
Den diggers.....	44	39	35	.642	(?)	.645	37.9	(?)	35.8	25.18	(?)	23.89
Dry-mixer operators.....	73	9	37	.722	.696	.749	44.5	46.4	42.7	34.01	34.45	33.58
Foremen.....	209	36	8	.977	.983	(?)	44.3	44.2	(?)	44.89	44.98	(?)
Laborers.....	1,419	201	455	.740	.768	.673	39.7	41.3	36.4	31.38	34.18	25.44
Maintenance workers, miscellaneous.....	72	964	2	1.071	1.081	(?)	44.9	44.5	(?)	51.35	51.21	(?)
Maintenance men's helpers.....	26	70	9	.834	(?)	(?)	44.6	(?)	(?)	39.94	(?)	(?)
Mechanics.....	60	17	1	.929	.933	(?)	48.6	48.3	(?)	49.23	49.06	(?)
Rock grinders.....	28	59	13	.745	(?)	(?)	46.9	(?)	(?)	38.37	(?)	(?)
Scalemen.....	36	15	13	.683	.700	(?)	41.4	41.4	(?)	29.25	30.09	(?)
Shovelers, hand.....	202	23	86	.644	.670	.608	35.1	35.3	34.9	23.40	24.58	21.80
Superphosphate mixers.....	37	11	26	.775	(?)	.754	46.2	(?)	44.8	38.80	(?)	36.32

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 8.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, Occupation, and Race, January 1943—Continued

Region and occupation	Number of workers			Average hourly earnings			Average weekly hours			Average weekly earnings		
	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro
North—Continued.												
Truckers, hand.....	169	67	102	\$0.596	\$0.650	\$0.559	37.4	37.9	37.0	\$23.08	\$25.77	\$21.31
Truck and tractor drivers.....	71	46	25	.707	.716	.690	44.3	44.4	44.1	33.25	33.50	32.78
Watchmen.....	102	94	8	.648	.649	(²)	45.7	45.9	(²)	31.12	31.34	(²)
Miscellaneous plant workers.....	274	152	122	.848	.921	.750	43.2	44.4	41.7	39.05	44.09	32.78
South.....	7,060	1,206	5,854	.452	.595	.418	40.4	45.2	39.5	19.62	29.07	17.67
Acid-chamber men.....	113	28	85	.466	.543	.442	50.8	49.4	51.3	26.41	29.69	25.33
Baggers.....	135	10	125	.411	(²)	.413	42.1	(²)	42.5	18.37	(²)	18.63
Bag printers.....	59	15	44	.453	(²)	.442	43.1	(²)	43.1	20.71	(²)	20.38
Bag sewers.....	156	6	150	.420	(²)	.420	43.1	(²)	43.1	19.23	(²)	19.23
Bag stowers.....	122	9	113	.397	(²)	.403	37.7	(²)	38.4	15.81	(²)	16.36
Car runners and conveyor operators.....	88	3	85	.380	(²)	.381	46.9	(²)	46.7	19.64	(²)	19.66
Carpenters.....	68	57	11	.701	.727	(²)	48.4	49.3	(²)	37.48	39.85	(²)
Den diggers.....	198	1	197	.374	(²)	.374	42.6	(²)	42.7	17.03	(²)	17.08
Dry-mixer operators.....	97	16	81	.418	(²)	.418	47.7	(²)	47.9	21.55	(²)	21.63
Foremen.....	287	252	35	.680	.705	.537	51.3	50.1	59.5	37.51	37.64	36.55
Laborers.....	3,107	113	2,994	.431	.406	.431	38.9	34.5	39.1	17.90	14.69	18.02
Maintenance workers, miscellaneous.....	87	75	12	.834	.875	(²)	48.8	49.2	(²)	45.90	48.53	(²)
Maintenance men's helpers.....	58	30	28	.549	.654	.441	48.4	47.5	49.4	29.55	34.59	24.15
Mechanics.....	58	50	8	.749	.797	(²)	50.8	50.8	(²)	42.61	45.41	(²)
Rock grinders.....	56	13	43	.472	(²)	.407	52.1	(²)	52.6	27.79	(²)	24.11
Scalemen.....	171	53	118	.416	.480	.388	42.1	41.0	42.6	18.84	20.97	17.88
Shovelers, hand.....	635	15	620	.399	(²)	.400	34.4	(²)	34.5	14.44	(²)	14.53
Superphosphate mixers.....	77	31	46	.502	.633	.430	46.7	41.0	50.5	25.46	27.44	24.12
Truckers, hand.....	729	52	677	.363	.370	.362	32.5	33.0	32.5	12.21	12.70	12.17
Truck and tractor drivers.....	196	68	128	.476	.491	.467	49.8	50.1	49.6	25.99	27.02	25.44
Watchmen.....	206	180	26	.391	.400	.322	45.7	46.2	42.1	19.16	19.84	14.44
Miscellaneous plant workers.....	357	129	228	.518	.685	.425	44.0	43.5	44.3	24.47	31.66	20.41

¹ Includes extra earnings from overtime.² Number of workers too small to justify the presentation of an average.

An examination of table 8 indicates that the average of 55 cents an hour for all plant workers in January 1943 was composed of a wide range of occupational averages, varying from 41.2 cents an hour for hand truckers to 93.7 cents an hour for maintenance workers (other than carpenters and mechanics). Carpenters averaged 81.4 cents and mechanics 83.9 cents an hour. Laborers, the most important occupational group in terms of number of workers, were paid an average of 52.9 cents an hour.⁸

In the North, hand truckers, with an average of 59.6 cents an hour, earned less than any other occupational group, while miscellaneous maintenance men earned \$1.07 an hour. Carpenters also received slightly over \$1.00 an hour. Laborers were paid 74.0 cents an hour.

Occupational averages in the South were at a substantially lower level than in the North, ranging from 36.3 cents an hour for hand truckers to 83.4 cents an hour for miscellaneous maintenance men. Carpenters averaged 70.1 cents an hour, while mechanics earned an average of 74.9 cents. Laborers were paid 43.1 cents an hour.

⁸ The relatively high rate for laborers, compared with other unskilled occupations, is partly explained by the fact that many plants reported workers as "laborers" when perhaps more specific titles could have been used.

In every occupation shown for the country as a whole, Negro workers received lower hourly earnings than white workers. The difference ranged from 7.6 cents an hour for truck and tractor drivers to 28.7 cents for rock grinders. In the North, white workers received higher average hourly wage rates than Negroes in 7 of the 9 occupations for which comparisons can be made. In the Southern region, white workers had a wage advantage over the Negro employees in most occupations. The advantage ranged from 0.8 cents to 26.0 cents in the 10 occupations which permit a racial comparison. Only in the case of laborers did Negro workers have higher hourly earnings. For this occupation, the difference amounted to 2.5 cents.

Wage earners in the fertilizer industry as a whole worked an average of 40.6 hours a week in January 1943, as table 8 shows. Average hours were 41 in the North and 40.4 in the South. White workers had longer average hours than Negro employees, with the average difference amounting to 3.9 hours in the industry as a whole, 3.5 hours in the North, and 5.7 hours in the South.

Average hours in the industry were measurably lowered by the relatively short average hours of laborers, hand shovelers, and hand truckers, the three largest occupational groups. Workers in 12 of the 22 occupational categories shown in table 8 had average hours of more than 45 a week; these groups were, in general, composed of the more skilled employees. The tendency for average hours to be relatively low among workers in the essentially unskilled occupations can be observed in both regions.

The average plant worker in the fertilizer industry had weekly earnings of \$23.82 in January 1943, including amounts received as premium pay for overtime. Table 8 shows that the average white worker earned \$33.63 and the average Negro worker \$19.20. Average weekly earnings in the North were \$33.20 (\$36.28 for white workers and \$27.38 for Negroes) and in the South \$19.62 (\$29.07 for white employees and \$17.67 for Negroes). The average difference between white and Negro workers in average weekly earnings in the industry and in both regions was greater than the difference in average hourly earnings. This was due primarily to the fact that white workers had longer average hours.

In the industry as a whole, miscellaneous maintenance workers received the highest average weekly earnings (\$48.37) and hand truckers the lowest (\$14.26). Laborers averaged \$22.12. The average for mechanics was \$45.98, about \$5 above the average for working foremen. The same general pattern of occupational weekly earnings was found in both the North and the South, but on a somewhat lower level in the latter region.

Earnings and Hours of Office Employees

In addition to plant employees, data were secured on the hours and earnings of 679 clerical workers employed by 184 of the 308 establishments covered by the survey. Summary information for these employees is shown in table 9.

Clerical employees in the industry as a whole earned an average of 70.7 cents an hour in January 1943. The average for male workers was 76.1 cents, as compared with 64.7 cents for female employees. It is interesting to observe that the level of earnings of clerical workers

in the North (73 cents) exceeded the level in the South by only slightly more than 4 cents an hour. This difference, of course, is much smaller than the differential previously shown for plant employees.

The average office employee, as table 9 reveals, worked 42.3 hours a week at the time of the wage survey. The average in the South was appreciably greater than in the North—43.9 hours as against 40.5 hours. Average hours for men in both regions were greater than for women.

The average weekly earnings of office workers, including any amounts derived from premium overtime pay, amounted to \$30.73—\$34.69 for men and \$26.59 for women. The average weekly earnings of both male and female office employees in the South were somewhat higher than in the North because of the longer average hours worked.

TABLE 9.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Clerical Workers in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, Occupation, and Sex, January 1943

Region and occupation	Number of workers			Average hourly earnings			Average weekly hours			Average weekly earnings ¹		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
United States.....	679	347	332	\$0.707	\$0.761	\$0.647	42.3	43.9	40.6	\$30.73	\$34.69	\$26.59
Bookkeepers.....	117	60	57	.749	.852	.626	43.7	46.3	40.9	33.11	40.03	25.83
Clerks.....	332	238	94	.707	.741	.616	41.9	42.5	40.4	30.73	32.85	25.35
Stenographers and typists.....	133	7	126	.670	(²)	.664	40.5	(²)	40.3	27.42	(²)	27.02
Miscellaneous office workers.....	97	42	55	.706	.732	.682	44.3	48.1	41.5	32.40	37.51	28.51
North.....	320	140	180	.730	.823	.655	40.5	41.0	40.0	29.82	34.33	26.30
Bookkeepers.....	55	21	34	.735	.873	.640	41.0	44.8	40.0	30.91	39.24	25.76
Clerks.....	140	99	41	.757	.806	.640	39.9	40.0	39.5	30.64	32.79	25.46
Stenographers and typists.....	77	4	73	.672	(²)	.669	40.2	(²)	40.1	27.02	(²)	26.82
Miscellaneous office workers.....	48	16	32	.735	.883	.658	41.1	42.0	40.7	30.66	38.47	26.76
South.....	359	207	152	.689	.723	.638	43.9	45.8	41.4	31.55	34.93	26.93
Bookkeepers.....	62	39	23	.760	.842	.607	45.3	47.1	42.2	35.07	40.45	25.94
Clerks.....	192	139	53	.673	.699	.599	43.4	44.3	41.1	30.79	32.90	25.27
Stenographers and typists.....	56	3	53	.668	(²)	.657	41.0	(²)	40.6	27.98	(²)	27.29
Miscellaneous office workers.....	49	26	23	.681	.656	.714	47.5	51.8	42.7	34.11	36.91	30.94

¹ Includes extra earnings resulting from penalty rates for overtime.

² Number of workers too small to justify the presentation of an average.

Salaries of Clerical Workers in 20 Cities, April 1943

WEEKLY salaries in April 1943 of clerical workers employed by representative companies in 20 cities selected from different sections of the United States ranged from a low of \$12 (high \$34) for office boys or girls to a high of \$58 (low \$15) for receptionists. The mode, or rate occurring most frequently, ranged from \$18 for file clerks to \$38 for senior dictating-machine transcribers. These figures are from a survey by the National Industrial Conference Board¹ covering salaries of 35,611 full-time clerical workers employed by 351 companies in industrial and commercial fields, including both large and small firms, those engaged largely in war production, those pro-

¹ National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 57: Clerical Salary Survey of Rates Paid, April 1943. New York, 1943.

ducing civilian goods and services, those whose clerical employees are represented by unions, and those whose employees are not represented by unions. Data on the range and mode of the weekly salaries of employees in each of the 13 occupations covered by the survey, and the low, median, and high salaries of the middle 50 percent, are shown in the accompanying table, together with the number of companies and number of employees represented. The figures do not include pay for overtime, but do include incentive-wage payments and production bonuses earned during the regular working hours.

Weekly Salaries of Clerical Employees, April 1943

Position	Number of companies	Number of employees	Weekly salaries				
			All employees		Middle 50 percent of employees		
			Range	Mode	Low	Median	High
Billing-machine operators.....	173	1,123	\$15-\$51	\$25	\$22	\$25	\$30
Bookkeeping-machine operators.....	211	2,995	16- 49	21	22	25	30
Calculating-machine or comptometer operators.....	244	4,238	13- 50	30	24	28	32
Key-punch operators.....	155	1,542	15- 43	30	23	27	30
File clerks.....	291	4,153	14- 52	18	18	22	25
Stenographers.....	311	8,546	16- 50	30	25	30	33
Junior copy typists.....	186	2,631	14- 37	25	20	23	25
Senior copy typists.....	193	3,670	16- 46	29	25	29	30
Junior dictating-machine transcribers.....	95	372	16- 39	21	21	23	26
Senior dictating-machine transcribers.....	152	979	16- 52	38	23	28	33
Receptionists.....	133	349	15- 58	25	23	27	32
Telephone-switchboard operators.....	276	1,396	15- 48	28	25	28	32
Office boy or girl.....	249	3,616	12- 34	20	17	19	21



Minimum Monthly Wage Rates in Brazil, 1943¹

NEW minimum wage rates for Brazil, effective for the next 3 years, but which may be modified at any time or confirmed for an additional 3 years, were established by decree law No. 5473 of May 11, 1943, and published in the *Diario Oficial* for May 13, 1943. The rates assigned for industrial workers are in the form of additions to the increases made by an order of January 8, 1943.² Industrial workers are defined as persons performing work directly connected with manufacturing or in the conversion of utilities in an establishment devoted exclusively or preponderantly to such activities. The legislation also includes services performed outside the manufacturing plant. In the case of a minor (a person under 18 years), only 50 percent of the specified additional rate is payable.

¹ Data are from report of Rudolf M. Cahn, United States vice consul at Rio de Janeiro, May 15, 1943. For rates fixed in 1940, see Labor Conditions in Latin America No. 5 (Serial No. R. 1139).

² See Labor Conditions in Latin America No. 14 (Serial No. R. 1523).

*Additions to Minimum Monthly Wage Rates, Granted to Industrial Workers in Brazil
by Law of May 11, 1943*

State and locality	Monthly wage (in cruzeiros ¹)			State and locality	Monthly wage (in cruzeiros ¹)		
	Minimum under order of January 8, 1943	Additional by law of May 11, 1943	Total to be effective until 1946		Minimum under order of January 8, 1943	Additional by law of May 11, 1943	Total to be effective until 1946
Alagoas:				Paraná:			
Maceió (capital).....	156.25	33.75	190.00	Curitiba (capital)....	225.00	15.00	240.00
Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00	Other districts.....	208.00	12.00	220.00
Amazonas:				Other districts.....	156.00	24.00	180.00
Manaus (capital).....	200.00	20.00	220.00	Pernambuco:			
Other districts.....	156.00	24.00	180.00	Recife (capital) and			
Baía:				Olinda.....	187.50	22.50	210.00
Salvador (capital),				Other districts.....	130.00	30.00	160.00
and 7 other munic-				Piauí:			
ipalities.....	187.50	22.50	210.00	Terezina (capital)....	150.00	30.00	180.00
Other districts (spec-	156.00	24.00	180.00	Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00
ified).....	143.00	27.00	170.00	Rio Grande do Norte:			
Ceará:				Natal (capital).....	162.50	27.50	190.00
Fortaleza (capital)...	187.50	22.50	210.00	Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00
Other districts.....	143.00	27.00	170.00	Rio Grande do Sul:			
Espírito Santo:				Porto Alegre (cap-			
Vitória (capital).....	200.00	20.00	220.00	ital).....	250.00	10.00	260.00
Other districts.....	143.00	27.00	170.00	Other districts.....	208.00	12.00	220.00
Federal District.....	300.00	10.00	310.00	Rio de Janeiro:			
Goiás:				Niterói (capital), and			
Goiânia (capital) and				2 other munic-			
cities bordering the				ipalities.....	250.00	10.00	260.00
Goiás Railroad.....	187.50	22.50	210.00	Headquarters of munic-			
Other districts.....	130.00	30.00	160.00	icipalities and			
Maranhão:				districts.....	195.00	15.00	210.00
São Luiz (capital)...	150.00	30.00	180.00	Other remaining dis-			
Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00	tricts.....	130.00	30.00	160.00
Mato Grosso:				Santa Catarina:			
Cuiabá (capital).....	187.50	22.50	210.00	Florianópolis (cap-			
Aquidauana, Bela				ital), and 6 other			
Vista, and 13 other				municipalities.....	212.50	17.50	230.00
municipalities.....	234.00	6.00	240.00	Other districts.....	195.00	15.00	210.00
Nioac and 13 other				Other districts.....	182.00	18.00	200.00
municipalities.....	130.00	30.00	160.00	São Paulo:			
Minas Gerais:				São Paulo (capital),			
Belo Horizonte (cap-				and 4 other munic-			
ital) and 4 other				ipalities.....	275.00	10.00	285.00
municipalities.....	212.50	17.50	230.00	Campinas.....	260.00	5.00	265.00
Other districts.....	156.00	24.00	180.00	Other districts.....	221.00	9.00	230.00
Pará:				Other districts.....	195.00	15.00	210.00
Belem (capital).....	187.50	22.50	210.00	Sergipe:			
Other districts.....	143.00	27.00	170.00	Aracaju (capital)...	156.25	33.75	190.00
Paraíba:				Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00
João Pessoa (capital)...	162.50	27.50	190.00	Acre Territory.....	212.50	17.50	230.00
Other districts.....	117.00	33.00	150.00				

¹ By decree-law No. 4791 of October 5, 1942, the monetary unit of Brazil was changed from the milreis to the cruzeiro, the new unit being of the same value (official exchange rate=6.06 cents). (Legislação do Trabalho, São Paulo, October 1942.)

From the table it will be seen that the highest minimum monthly rate of pay in industry (310.00 cruzeiros) is to be paid in the Federal District, and the lowest (150.00 cruzeiros), in parts of Alagoas, Baía, Maranhão, Paraíba, Piauí, Rio Grande do Norte, and Sergipe. Also in the rates fixed in 1940, the highest and lowest were found in the above States. However, the highest monthly rate fixed in 1940 was 240.000 milreis and the lowest was 90.000 milreis. Thus the increase fixed in 1943 for the highest rate was 29.2 percent, but for the lowest, 66.7 percent.

Weekly Earnings in British Industry, January 1943

EARNINGS in British industries, excluding coal mining and railways, increased between July 1942 and January 1943, as shown in the following table, which gives the unweighted weekly earnings by age class of workers.¹ The computations were made by the Ministry of Labor, and average earnings include overtime and piece-work bonuses, etc., of all manual workers, skilled and unskilled. Such surveys are made at 6-month intervals; the one made in January 1943 covered 54,700 firms employing 6,250,000 workers.

Average Weekly Earnings in Great Britain in Specified Months, by Class of Workers

Month (weekly pay)	Average weekly earnings of—				
	All workers	Men 21 years of age and over	Youths 20 years of age and under	Women 18 years of age and over	Girls 17 years of age and under
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
October 1938.....	53 3	69 0	25 1	32 6	18 6
January 1942.....	77 9	102 0	42 6	47 6	26 10
July 1942.....	85 2	111 5	46 2	54 2	30 3
January 1943.....	(1)	114 5	45 0	59 3	32 3

¹ Not issued, as the industries represented by the firms consulted were different in proportion from the relative employment roll of the whole industries.

Although an average-earnings figure for all workers in January 1943 is omitted for the reason stated in the footnote to the table, the report under review states that average earnings for all workers increased 65.1 percent between October 1938 (when the first survey was undertaken) and January 1943. The rise was greatest for women 18 years of age and over (80 percent), followed by girls (73.4 percent) and youths (72.8 percent). For men 21 years of age and over the percentage increase was smallest (64.9).

With the exception of youths, all classes showed higher average weekly earnings in January 1943 than in July 1942. For youths the decline from the average of July was 1s. 2d., to 45s. weekly in January.

The average earnings for women are for those in full-time employment. Part-time woman workers earned an average of 27s. 3d. a week.

The Ministry of Labor estimates that the increase in rates of wages was 26 to 27 percent in the industries covered between October 1938 and January 1943. Earnings of workers rose by more than this proportion owing to longer hours, more payment by results, and increased earnings of women employed on men's jobs at or near men's rates of pay. To supplement the unweighted averages, the Ministry has worked out weighted average earnings for January 1943. The weights were established according to the estimated total number of persons employed in each industry. If the earnings data are weighted to eliminate the effects of changes in the proportion of men, women,

¹ Released by British Information Services (New York), Information Division, L-89. July 2, 1943.

youths, and girls in various industries, the weighted weekly earnings and the percentage increases in earnings from October 1938 to January 1943 are as shown in the accompanying statement.

	Weighted weekly earn- ings, Janu- ary 1943		Percent of increase, Oc- tober 1938 to January 1943
	s.	d.	
All workers.....	87	11	---
Men 21 years of age and over.....	113	9	54
Youths 20 years of age and under.....	45	1	65
Women 18 years of age and over.....	58	6	58-59
Girls 17 years of age and under.....	32	1	66

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Labor Turnover

Labor Turnover in Manufacturing and Mining, May 1943

THE total separation rate in May 1943 for all manufacturing industries was 6.57 per hundred employees, about the same as in May 1942. This year, however, 73 percent of all separations were quits, while a year before only 58 percent were quits. Lay-offs represented only 7 percent of the separations in May of this year as compared with 22 percent in May of last year. Discharges and military and miscellaneous separations together represented 20 percent of the total in both periods.

The quit rate in all manufacturing for May 1943 was 4.81 per hundred employees, about 11 percent lower than in April but 28 percent higher than in May 1942. During the preceding 12 months the quit rate for May was exceeded only in March and April. The decline from April to May was quite general, quits being lower in all of the major durable groups and in all but two of the nondurable groups. While the rate was higher in the tobacco manufactures and miscellaneous industries groups, the increase was negligible.

In mining, separation rates were from 20 to 30 percent lower in May than in April, reflecting fewer quits. Separation rates in coal mining were lower than in most manufacturing industries, the rate in bituminous-coal mining being 4.35 and in anthracite, 2.71. Metalliferous mining had a rate of 6.02 per hundred employees.

Of the 19 selected war industries only small-arms ammunition had a higher quit rate in May than in April. The quit rate for this industry was nevertheless below that for manufacturing as a whole. Four of the war industries had higher quit rates than all manufacturing: firearms, 4.85; aluminum and magnesium products, 5.02; shipbuilding, 6.20; and aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining, 8.82.

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Manufacturing Industries¹

Class of turnover and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Separations:												
1942.....	5.10	4.82	5.36	6.12	6.54	6.46	6.73	7.06	8.10	7.91	7.09	6.37
1943.....	7.11	7.04	7.69	7.54	² 6.57							
Quits:												
1942.....	2.36	2.41	3.02	3.59	3.77	3.85	4.02	4.31	5.19	4.65	4.21	3.71
1943.....	4.45	4.65	5.36	5.41	² 4.81							
Discharges:												
1942.....	.30	.29	.33	.35	.38	.38	.43	.42	.44	.45	.43	.46
1943.....	.52	.50	.57	.53	² .55							
Lay-offs: ³												
1942.....	1.61	1.39	1.19	1.31	1.43	1.21	1.05	.87	.68	.78	.65	.70
1943.....	.74	.54	.52	.64	² .45							
Military and miscellaneous:												
1942.....	.83	.73	.82	.87	.96	1.02	1.23	1.46	1.79	2.03	1.80	1.50
1943.....	1.40	1.35	1.24	.96	² .76							
Accessions:												
1942.....	6.87	6.02	6.99	7.12	7.29	8.25	8.28	7.90	9.15	8.69	8.14	6.92
1943.....	8.28	7.87	8.32	7.43	² 7.18							

¹ Turnover rates are not comparable to the employment and pay-roll reports issued monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as the former are based on data for the entire month, while the latter refer only to pay periods ending nearest the middle of the month. In addition, labor turnover data refer to all employees whereas the employment and pay-roll reports relate only to wage earners. Certain seasonal industries, such as canning and preserving, are not covered by the labor turnover survey and the sample is not as extensive as that of the employment survey which includes a larger number of small plants.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

³ Preliminary.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates, by Major Industry Groups, May 1943

Industry group	Separations										Total accessions	
	Total		Quits		Discharges		Lay-offs		Military and miscellaneous			
	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943	May 1943 ¹	Apr. 1943
<i>Durable goods</i>												
Iron and steel and their products.....	5.17	5.51	3.54	3.77	0.37	0.31	0.36	0.28	0.90	1.15	5.12	5.33
Machinery, except electrical.....	5.00	5.98	3.45	4.09	.54	.58	.19	.22	.82	1.09	5.15	5.89
Automobiles.....	5.43	6.18	3.34	4.17	.64	.59	.39	.32	1.06	1.10	8.03	9.00
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	6.96	8.04	5.10	5.85	.63	.61	.37	.37	.86	1.21	7.39	7.66
Lumber and timber products.....	7.57	8.86	5.74	6.71	.42	.40	.70	1.06	.71	.69	7.85	8.80
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	10.39	11.54	8.20	9.35	.71	.73	.78	.52	.70	.94	9.99	9.94
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	6.72	7.10	4.50	5.35	.40	.33	1.08	.48	.74	.94	6.37	6.89
Electrical machinery.....	4.38	5.15	3.27	3.66	.35	.40	.15	.22	.61	.87	5.37	5.90
Ordnance.....	6.69	7.62	3.88	4.26	.77	.71	1.25	1.66	.79	.99	7.50	7.11
Transportation equipment (except automobiles).....	7.04	7.65	4.88	5.07	.92	.93	.32	.45	.92	1.20	8.85	9.50
<i>Nondurable goods</i>												
Textile-mill products.....	7.41	8.34	6.04	6.97	.37	.32	.42	.33	.58	.72	6.75	7.60
Apparel and other finished products.....	6.55	7.94	5.67	6.46	.20	.23	.46	.95	.22	.30	5.60	6.36
Leather and leather products.....	6.66	8.20	5.48	6.48	.33	.34	.33	.62	.52	.76	5.13	5.58
Food and kindred products.....	9.41	13.08	7.14	9.06	.56	.57	.76	2.37	.95	1.08	11.02	8.89
Paper and allied products.....	7.75	8.15	5.88	6.42	.58	.35	.45	.54	.84	.84	8.40	8.06
Chemicals and allied products.....	5.30	5.61	3.71	3.77	.45	.45	.50	.47	.64	.92	7.05	7.30
Petroleum and coal products.....	2.85	3.10	1.77	1.98	.20	.23	.21	.23	.67	.66	3.35	3.59
Rubber products.....	6.23	6.39	5.01	5.16	.30	.29	.16	.09	.76	.85	7.12	6.08
Tobacco manufacturers.....	8.08	7.46	6.81	6.55	.23	.23	.58	.22	.46	.47	6.50	6.31
Miscellaneous industries.....	4.11	4.31	2.89	2.84	.42	.38	.09	.11	.71	.98	5.09	5.79

¹ Preliminary.

TABLE 3.—Quit Rates for Selected War Industries, May 1943

Industry group	Quit rates		Industry group	Quit rates	
	May 1943 ¹	April 1943		May 1943 ¹	April 1943
Aircraft	4.23	4.62	Industrial chemicals (except explosives)	2.68	3.00
Aircraft parts and engines	2.98	3.02	Iron and steel foundry products	5.77	5.96
Aluminum and magnesium products	5.02	5.58	Machine tools	3.35	3.59
Aluminum and magnesium smelting and refining	8.82	10.05	Machine-tool accessories	3.11	4.29
Ammunition, (except small arms)	4.72	5.41	Metalworking machinery and equipment, not elsewhere classified	2.71	3.39
Communication equipment (except radios)	2.46	2.71	Primary smelting and refining (except aluminum)	2.88	2.98
Electrical equipment for industrial use	2.73	2.98	Radios, radio equipment and phonographs	4.71	5.50
Engines and turbines	3.04	4.38	Rolling, drawing, alloying of non-ferrous metal (except aluminum)	4.13	5.63
Explosives	2.75	2.84	Shipbuilding and repairs	6.20	6.30
Firearms (60 caliber and under)	4.85	4.91	Small-arms ammunition	3.86	3.70
Guns, howitzers, mortars, and related equipment	3.55	3.82	Tanks	3.57	3.86

¹ Preliminary.

TABLE 4.—Monthly Turnover Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1943

Industry group	Total separations		Quits		Total accessions	
	May 1943 ¹	April 1943	May 1943 ¹	April 1943	May 1943 ¹	April 1943
Iron and steel and their products:						
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	3.59	4.13	2.35	2.59	3.46	3.93
Gray-iron castings	7.87	8.41	5.94	6.35	7.05	7.69
Steel castings	8.37	8.01	6.34	6.20	7.96	8.57
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	5.67	6.20	3.53	3.81	6.57	5.25
Tin cans and other tinware	11.42	10.94	9.53	8.95	17.69	15.00
Wire products	5.07	4.93	3.14	3.30	2.52	3.81
Cutlery and edge tools	7.41	8.14	5.23	5.51	8.68	7.89
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	6.03	7.30	4.92	5.75	6.63	7.11
Hardware	5.33	6.56	3.97	4.72	6.14	5.89
Plumbers' supplies	4.78	4.29	3.27	2.83	4.17	4.57
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment	12.73	10.94	6.00	6.74	7.73	8.70
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	5.84	7.33	4.43	5.07	5.55	6.48
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing	9.66	8.93	6.28	6.72	10.74	7.97
Fabricated structural metal products	8.39	9.33	5.11	6.38	9.19	9.97
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	5.42	6.08	4.04	4.65	6.31	7.09
Forgings, iron and steel	4.93	6.22	3.48	4.56	6.75	7.10
Machinery, except electrical:						
Agricultural machinery and tractors	3.42	5.19	2.29	3.56	3.96	5.73
Textile machinery	2.87	4.90	2.12	3.28	3.40	4.18
General industrial machinery (except pumps)	5.71	6.64	4.23	4.74	6.41	7.42
Pumps and pumping equipment	5.05	7.66	3.38	5.36	4.71	5.34
Automobiles:						
Motor vehicles, bodies, and trailers	4.31	5.61	2.80	3.96	8.19	9.73
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories	6.36	6.82	3.78	4.40	7.89	8.22
Nonferrous metals and their products:						
Primary smelting and refining	8.09	8.36	6.15	6.59	10.82	9.65
Lighting equipment	4.75	6.22	3.61	4.79	6.42	10.58
Lumber and timber basic products:						
Sawmills	7.23	8.34	5.57	6.23	7.58	8.82
Planing and plywood mills	7.87	9.67	5.50	7.50	7.14	8.51
Furniture and finished lumber products:						
Furniture, including mattresses and bedsprings	10.82	12.18	8.49	9.87	9.98	10.14
Stone, clay, and glass products:						
Glass and glass products	6.90	7.03	4.57	4.97	7.43	7.72
Cement	7.42	5.09	3.12	3.80	3.93	5.80
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	7.78	8.41	5.62	6.66	6.87	7.12
Pottery and related products	7.17	7.61	5.49	6.24	5.96	6.17

¹ Preliminary.

TABLE 4.—Monthly Turnover Rates in Selected Manufacturing Industries, May 1943—Continued

Industry group	Total separations		Quits		Total accessions	
	May 1943	April 1943	May 1943	April 1943	May 1943	April 1943
Textile-mill products:						
Cotton.....	7.96	9.28	6.59	7.86	7.30	8.58
Silk and rayon goods.....	8.26	9.41	6.88	8.25	7.53	8.47
Woolen and worsted (except dyeing and finishing).....	5.78	6.02	4.18	4.53	4.66	5.71
Hosiery, full-fashioned.....	5.47	5.63	4.67	4.78	4.14	4.19
Hosiery, seamless.....	8.74	7.80	7.49	6.71	7.11	7.72
Knitted underwear.....	7.93	8.13	6.85	7.33	7.29	7.04
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	6.01	8.38	4.47	6.28	5.29	8.15
Apparel and other finished textile products:						
Men's and boys' suits, coats, and overcoats.....	4.89	7.04	3.66	4.05	3.97	3.98
Men's and boys' furnishings, work clothing and allied garments.....	6.91	7.58	6.41	6.93	6.14	7.03
Women's clothing (except corsets).....	7.63	10.30	6.25	8.92	6.60	9.01
Leather and leather products:						
Leather.....	5.08	6.87	3.76	5.36	3.37	3.79
Boots and shoes.....	6.87	8.44	5.74	6.67	5.34	5.89
Food and kindred products:						
Meat products.....	9.26	13.16	6.52	9.32	11.11	7.59
Grain-mill products.....	8.54	9.71	6.93	7.85	9.52	9.14
Paper and allied products:						
Paper and pulp.....	6.47	7.00	4.87	5.57	6.74	6.77
Paper boxes.....	9.32	10.49	6.89	7.92	10.37	10.60
Chemicals and allied products:						
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	5.54	7.27	4.01	5.43	5.73	6.53
Rayon and allied products.....	4.82	5.71	3.29	3.71	4.66	4.75
Industrial chemicals (except explosives).....	2.90	4.51	2.68	3.00	4.96	4.84
Products of petroleum and coal:						
Petroleum refining.....	2.67	2.93	1.62	1.87	3.26	3.44
Rubber products:						
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	4.10	3.90	2.87	2.87	6.62	5.65
Rubber footwear and related products.....	7.85	8.27	6.77	7.13	6.99	7.83
Miscellaneous rubber industries.....	6.91	7.19	5.08	5.84	7.40	5.88

TABLE 5.—Monthly Labor Turnover Rates in Mining Industries, May 1943

Mining industry	Total separations		Quits		Total accessions	
	May 1943 ¹	April 1943	May 1943 ¹	April 1943	May 1943 ¹	April 1943
Bituminous coal.....	4.35	6.25	3.31	5.21	3.32	4.32
Anthracite.....	2.71	3.54	1.88	2.54	2.77	3.07
Metalliferous.....	6.02	7.22	4.43	5.62	6.13	6.31

¹ Preliminary.

Building Operations

Estimated Construction Activity in Continental United States 1939-43¹

Summary

WITH the industrial facilities and war construction programs well on the way to completion, the construction industry finished, in the first 6 months of 1943, work valued at 4.3 billion dollars. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that about 2.5 billion dollars of construction will be completed during the last 6 months of the year, making a total of 6.8 billion for the year.

Privately financed construction, restricted by stringent controls and confronted with shortages in many lines of materials, amounted to only 753 million dollars in the first 6 months. No longer following the normal seasonal pattern, private construction is expected to decline from 389 million dollars in the second quarter to 382 millions in the third and 310 millions in the fourth quarter. At this level private construction will be approaching the irreducible minimum necessary for the maintenance of essential civilian supplies and services in time of war.

Public construction, largely because of diminishing activity on the military and naval and industrial facilities programs, totaled only 3.5 billion dollars in the first 6 months of the year. Expenditures of approximately 1.8 billion dollars are expected on public construction in the second half of the year.

Comparison of 1943 With 1942

PRIVATE CONSTRUCTION

Private construction continued the decline that started in the last half of 1941. The total for the first quarter of 1943 was 364 million dollars, a decline of 60 percent from the first quarter of 1942, while second-quarter expenditures of 389 million dollars were 59 percent under the figure for the corresponding period of 1942.

Expenditures for nonfarm residential construction, declining rapidly after the full effect of Conservation Order L-41 became apparent in the third quarter of 1942, reached a low of 143 million dollars in the first quarter of 1943. This represents a decrease of 69 percent from the first quarter of 1942. Stabilized at a much lower level in 1943, nonfarm residential-construction expenditures of 191 million dollars in the second quarter showed almost a normal seasonal gain over the

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment.

first quarter but were 59 percent under the amount for the second quarter of 1942. Expenditures on nonfarm residential construction are expected to total about 340 million dollars in the last half of the year. The decline in nonresidential construction was even more severe than that shown by residential construction. Expenditures for nonresidential structures, including privately financed war plants, were 45 million dollars during the first 3 months of 1943, which represents a reduction of 78 percent from the first quarter of 1942. Second-quarter expenditures of 28 million dollars were 82 percent under those for the second quarter of 1942.

In spite of the heavy demands on farmers for greater food production, farm construction expenditures were lower in both the first and second quarters of 1943 than in the corresponding periods in 1942. First-quarter expenditures were 15 percent lower and second-quarter expenditures 55 percent lower than in 1942. Expenditures for construction of public utilities, amounting to 104 million dollars in each of the first two quarters of 1943 were 31 and 42 percent lower than in the first and second quarters of 1942.

PUBLIC CONSTRUCTION

Public-construction activity in the first quarter of 1943, although declining rapidly from the peak reached in the third quarter of 1942, was still 20 percent above the level of the first quarter of 1942. Public expenditures of 1.6 billion dollars in the second quarter of 1943 were 35 percent less than outlays in the corresponding period in 1942. Public housing expenditures during the first quarter of 1943, after decreasing 17 percent from the fourth quarter in 1942, rose to the highest level in history in the second quarter of the current year. The 213 million dollars of work placed in the second quarter was more than twice the amount for the comparable period of 1942. Public nonresidential construction, exclusive of industrial facilities and military and naval construction, has fallen to insignificant levels and in the second quarter of this year amounted to only 9 million dollars.

As noted above, the industrial facilities program is nearing completion and expenditures of 664 million dollars in the first 3 months of the year represented a decline of 41 percent from the peak of this program which came in the third quarter of 1942. These expenditures declined to 458 million dollars in the second quarter and for the remainder of the year are expected to total approximately 389 million dollars. Military and naval construction likewise reached a peak in the third quarter of 1942 and has declined rapidly since then. Expenditures of 883 million dollars in the first quarter were 28 percent greater than in the first quarter of 1942. However, in the second quarter, activity on this program was 40 percent less than in the second quarter of 1942. Outlays for military and naval construction will probably not decline so rapidly as those for industrial facilities and in the last 6 months of the year should amount to slightly more than 700 million dollars.

Highway construction, restricted like many other types in order to conserve critical materials, is going ahead at a considerably slower rate than in 1942. Expenditures in the first and second quarter of 1943 were 40 and 43 percent under those for the respective quarters of the preceding year. Other public construction, including river,

harbor, and flood-control works, TVA projects and public service enterprises such as water and sewage, rapid transit, electric light and power, and pipe lines increased from 264 million dollars in the first half of 1942 to 271 million in the first half of 1943. This rise was largely the result of increased activity in the construction of Federally financed pipe lines.

Estimated New Construction Activity in Continental United States, 1939 through 1943¹

[Millions of dollars]

Function and ownership	1939	1940	1941	1942				1943			
				Total	First quarter	Second quarter	Last 6 months	Total	First quarter	Second quarter ²	Last 6 months ³
Total new construction.....	6,460	7,271	10,943	13,496	2,515	3,433	7,548	6,763	2,296	2,013	2,454
Private construction.....	3,833	4,609	5,650	3,114	899	950	1,265	1,445	364	389	692
Residential (nonfarm).....	2,046	2,359	2,894	1,451	463	471	517	674	143	191	340
Nonresidential (including privately financed war plants).....	768	1,015	1,244	542	201	153	188	121	45	28	48
Farm:											
Residential.....	235	250	300	185	34	59	92	90	26	24	40
Service buildings.....	295	320	415	315	51	89	175	160	46	42	72
Public utility.....	489	665	797	621	150	178	293	400	104	104	192
Public construction.....	2,627	2,662	5,293	10,382	1,616	2,483	6,283	5,318	1,932	1,624	1,762
Residential (including war housing).....	65	199	429	542	77	97	368	640	162	213	265
Nonresidential (excludes industrial facilities).....	814	365	264	135	47	42	46	35	8	9	18
Industrial facilities.....	20	154	1,287	3,513	552	849	2,112	1,511	664	458	389
Military and naval.....	128	385	1,614	4,967	689	1,152	3,126	2,298	883	696	719
Highway.....	872	932	999	664	131	199	334	372	78	114	180
Other public:											
Federal ⁴	329	346	421	401	77	95	229	363	106	108	149
State and local ⁵	309	281	279	160	43	49	68	99	31	26	42

¹ The estimates include expenditures for new construction in the continental United States. They do not include work-relief construction expenditures or maintenance expenditures. The estimates do include expenditures for major additions and alterations.

² Preliminary.

³ Bureau of Labor Statistics forecast.

⁴ Includes conservation and development, TVA, and public pipe-line construction.

⁵ Includes water supply, sewage disposal, and miscellaneous public-service enterprises.

Building Construction in Urban Areas of the United States, June 1943

THE value of building construction started in urban areas during June 1943 exceeded \$100,000,000, the largest monthly total since March 1943. The value of Federal building construction contracts awarded during June was 9 percent greater than in May 1943, and more than offset the slight decline in permit valuations for privately financed building construction. Valuations of new nonresidential buildings started during June were 37 percent higher than in May. Similarly, valuations for additions and repairs rose 23 percent. In contrast, valuations for new residential structures dropped 23 percent from May to June, principally as a result of the 63-percent decrease in the value of public housing projects put under construction contract. Both new residential and nonresidential privately financed building declined from the May total, while additions, alterations, and repairs increased.

The dollar volume of building construction started during June 1943 was 55 percent less than during June 1942. Privately financed construction alone was only 20 percent less than in June 1942, while the value of Federally financed construction contracts was reduced by almost three-fourths. Although all classes of building construction, both Federal and private, shared in the decline, privately financed new residential construction and additions, alterations, and repairs suffered relatively little, with declines of 4 and 8 percent, respectively.

Comparison of June 1943 with May 1943 and June 1942

The volume of Federally financed and other building construction in urban areas of the United States in May and June 1943 and June 1942 is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, June 1943

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Valuation		
	June 1943	Percent of change from—		June 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		May 1943	June 1942		May 1943	June 1942
All building construction.....	60,176	-3.8	-5.1	\$100,198	+2.2	-54.7
New residential.....	11,217	-37.1	-23.6	41,140	-22.5	-39.0
New nonresidential.....	7,522	-9.5	-19.5	34,459	+37.1	-70.6
Additions, alterations, and repairs..	41,437	+13.7	+5.1	21,599	+27.2	-16.9

The number of new dwelling units in urban areas for which permits were issued or contracts awarded during June 1943 and the estimated valuation of such new housekeeping residential construction are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Type of Dwelling, June 1943

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation		
	June 1943	Percent of change from—		June 1943 (in thousands)	Percent of change from—	
		May 1943	June 1942		May 1943	June 1942
All dwellings.....	13,930	-32.7	-36.1	\$40,812	-22.4	-38.1
Privately financed.....	11,422	-7.5	+5	35,449	-6.7	-4.4
1-family.....	7,440	-10.6	-11.3	25,299	-7.3	-11.9
2-family ¹	1,686	+2.4	+57.0	4,426	+6.8	+47.1
Multifamily ²	2,296	-3.3	+20.8	5,724	-12.7	+6.6
Federally financed.....	2,508	-69.9	-76.0	5,363	-63.3	-81.4

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Comparisons of First 6 Months of 1942 and 1943

Permit valuations and contract values reported for each of the first 6 months of 1942 and 1943 are shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—*Valuation of Various Classes of Building Construction in All Urban Areas, First 6 Months of 1942 and 1943*

[In thousands of dollars]

Month	All Construction					
	All classes ¹		New residential buildings		New nonresidential buildings	
	1943	1942	1943	1942	1943	1942
Total, 6 months.....	636, 571	1, 668, 987	290, 527	576, 289	249, 101	929, 138
Percent of change.....	-61. 9		-49. 6		-73. 2	
January.....	122, 115	197, 097	51, 469	73, 070	58, 920	96, 931
February.....	116, 006	334, 318	53, 490	129, 511	49, 059	180, 502
March.....	105, 101	281, 327	49, 369	110, 292	40, 623	139, 496
April.....	95, 150	308, 859	41, 990	109, 376	35, 712	169, 682
May.....	89, 001	326, 328	53, 069	86, 587	27, 328	214, 928
June.....	100, 198	221, 058	41, 140	67, 453	37, 459	127, 599
Federal						
Total, 6 months.....	344, 082	963, 231	124, 006	186, 656	210, 729	758, 108
Percent of change.....	-64. 3		-33. 6		-72. 2	
January.....	89, 481	86, 575	34, 117	15, 684	53, 382	67, 489
February.....	82, 534	209, 074	35, 912	56, 602	44, 450	149, 037
March.....	59, 276	112, 876	21, 990	9, 685	35, 802	100, 597
April.....	41, 815	168, 965	11, 445	27, 771	28, 684	139, 887
May.....	33, 984	243, 701	15, 007	46, 589	18, 068	193, 123
June.....	36, 992	142, 040	5, 535	30, 325	30, 343	107, 975

¹ Includes additions, alterations, and repairs.

The number and valuation of new dwelling units for which permits were issued and contracts awarded during the first 6 months of 1943 are compared with similar data for 1942 in table 4.

TABLE 4.—*Number and Valuation of New Dwelling Units in All Urban Areas, by Source of Funds and Type of Dwelling, First 6 Months of 1942 and 1943*

Source of funds and type of dwelling	Number of dwelling units			Valuation (in thousands)		
	First 6 months of—		Percent of change	First 6 months of—		Percent of change
	1943	1942		1943	1942	
All dwellings.....	112, 152	170, 332	-34. 2	\$285, 647	\$569, 884	-49. 9
Privately financed.....	54, 921	116, 690	-52. 9	165, 961	395, 878	-58. 1
1-family.....	37, 153	88, 807	-58. 2	119, 509	314, 072	-61. 9
2-family ¹	7, 253	9, 340	-22. 3	19, 417	24, 789	-21. 7
Multifamily ²	10, 515	18, 543	-43. 3	27, 035	57, 017	-52. 6
Federal.....	57, 231	53, 642	+6. 7	119, 686	174, 006	-31. 2

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction From Public Funds, June 1943

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during May and June 1943 and June 1942 on all construction projects and shipbuilding financed wholly or partially from Federal funds and reported to the Bureau is shown in table 5. This table includes all other types of construction as well as building construction, both inside and outside urban areas of the United States.

TABLE 5.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, May and June 1943, and June 1942*

Source of funds	Contracts awarded and force-account work started (in thousands)		
	June 1943 ¹	May 1943 ²	June 1942 ²
Total.....	\$2,269,115	\$231,316	\$1,870,657
War public works.....	4,582	4,173	394
Regular Federal appropriations.....	2,254,136	200,465	1,799,841
Federal Public Housing Authority.....	10,397	26,678	70,422

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Revised.

Coverage and Method

Figures on building construction shown in this report cover the entire urban area of the United States, which, by Census definition, includes all incorporated places with a 1940 population of 2,500 or more and, by special rule, a small number of unincorporated civil divisions. The volume of privately financed construction is estimated from the building permit data received from a large majority of all urban places and these estimates are combined with data on building construction contracts awarded as furnished by Federal and State agencies. The contracts awarded for Federally financed building construction in urban areas were valued at \$36,992,000 in June 1943, \$33,984,000 in May 1943, and \$142,040,000 in June 1942.

The valuation figures represent estimates of construction costs made by prospective private builders when applying for permits to build, and the value of contracts awarded by Federal and State governments. No land costs are included. Unless otherwise indicated, only building construction within the corporate limits of cities in the urban areas is included in the tabulations.

Retail Prices

Food Prices in May and June 1943

RETAIL costs of food declined 0.8 percent between May 18 and June 15, after an advance of 1.7 percent between April 20 and May 18. The rapid rise and subsequent seasonal declines in prices of fresh vegetables were largely responsible for these price movements. The decline from May to June was the first decline since November 1940, when there was a decrease of 0.3 percent.

The all-foods index for May reached 143.0 percent of the 1935-39 average, 17.6 percent above May 1942, 46 percent above January 1941, and 53 percent above August 1939 (the period preceding the outbreak of war in Europe). The 0.8 percent decline between May and June brought the index down to 141.9, which was 15 percent above June 1942, 45 percent above January 1941, and 12 percent above September 1942.

The prices of most of the important groups of foods rose to some extent between mid-April and mid-May. The rise was greatest for fresh fruits and vegetables, lamb, and chickens. There were minor declines in dairy products, beverages, fats and oils, and sugar. Between May and June only eggs and fats and oils showed increases; declines were reported for dairy products, fresh vegetables, and sugar and sweets. Average costs for meats and beverages remained unchanged from May to June. Of the 78 foods priced, 33 showed increases between mid-April and mid-May, as compared with 25 increases between May 18 and June 15.

The June 10 roll-back of retail butter prices by the Office of Price Administration, through the use of subsidies, resulted in a decrease of 5 cents (9.2 percent) per pound in the average price. This, together with the decline in the prices of fresh vegetables, was largely responsible for the decrease in the June all-foods index. The declines in fresh-vegetable prices were seasonal, as increased supplies became available in nearly all markets.

Percentage changes in retail costs of food on June 15 compared with several preceding periods are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Changes in Retail Costs of Food in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups

Commodity group	Percent of change, June 15, 1943, compared with—					Percent of change, May 18, 1943, compared with—	
	1943	1942		1941	1939	1943	1942
	May 18	Sept. 15	June 16	Jan. 14	Aug. 15	Apr. 20	May 12
All foods.....	-0.8	+12.1	+15.2	+45.1	+51.8	+1.7	+17.6
Cereals and bakery products.....	-1.1	+2.0	+2.3	+13.3	+15.1	+1.1	+2.3
Meats.....	0	+5.9	+9.2	+36.8	+44.5	+2	+11.2
Beef and veal.....	+2	+4.3	+6.6	+20.1	+31.9	+5	+5.6
Pork.....	-1	+1.1	+2.9	+45.6	+42.5	-4	+1.9
Lamb.....	+8	+6.7	+9.2	+44.6	+44.4	+2.1	+19.8
Chickens.....	-3	+10.1	+19.4	+51.4	+55.6	+8	+30.2
Fish, fresh and canned.....	+3	+19.6	+27.0	+69.4	+101.9	-2.6	+33.7
Dairy products.....	-2.4	+4.6	+9.4	+27.1	+43.5	-1	+11.0
Eggs.....	+2.9	-5.8	+22.1	+50.1	+61.2	+6	+23.1
Fruits and vegetables.....	-1.6	+44.7	+40.3	+101.1	+103.1	+6.4	+48.3
Fresh.....	-1.8	+55.0	+47.8	+116.3	+117.7	+7.6	+58.3
Canned.....	-5	+5.3	+6.7	+42.7	+42.4	-9	+6.9
Dried.....	+3	+10.5	+19.5	+59.0	+75.4	+2	+20.4
Beverages.....	0	+6	+1.5	+37.0	+31.2	-3	-1
Fats and oils.....	+1	+4.7	+5.3	+57.4	+49.6	-3	+3.1
Sugar and sweets.....	-9	-4	-2	+32.7	+32.3	-7	+3

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Details by Commodity Groups

Indexes of retail food costs by commodity groups are shown in table 2 for eight monthly pricing periods. The accompanying charts show the trends in the cost of all foods for January 1913 to June 1943, and for each major group for January 1929 to June 1943.

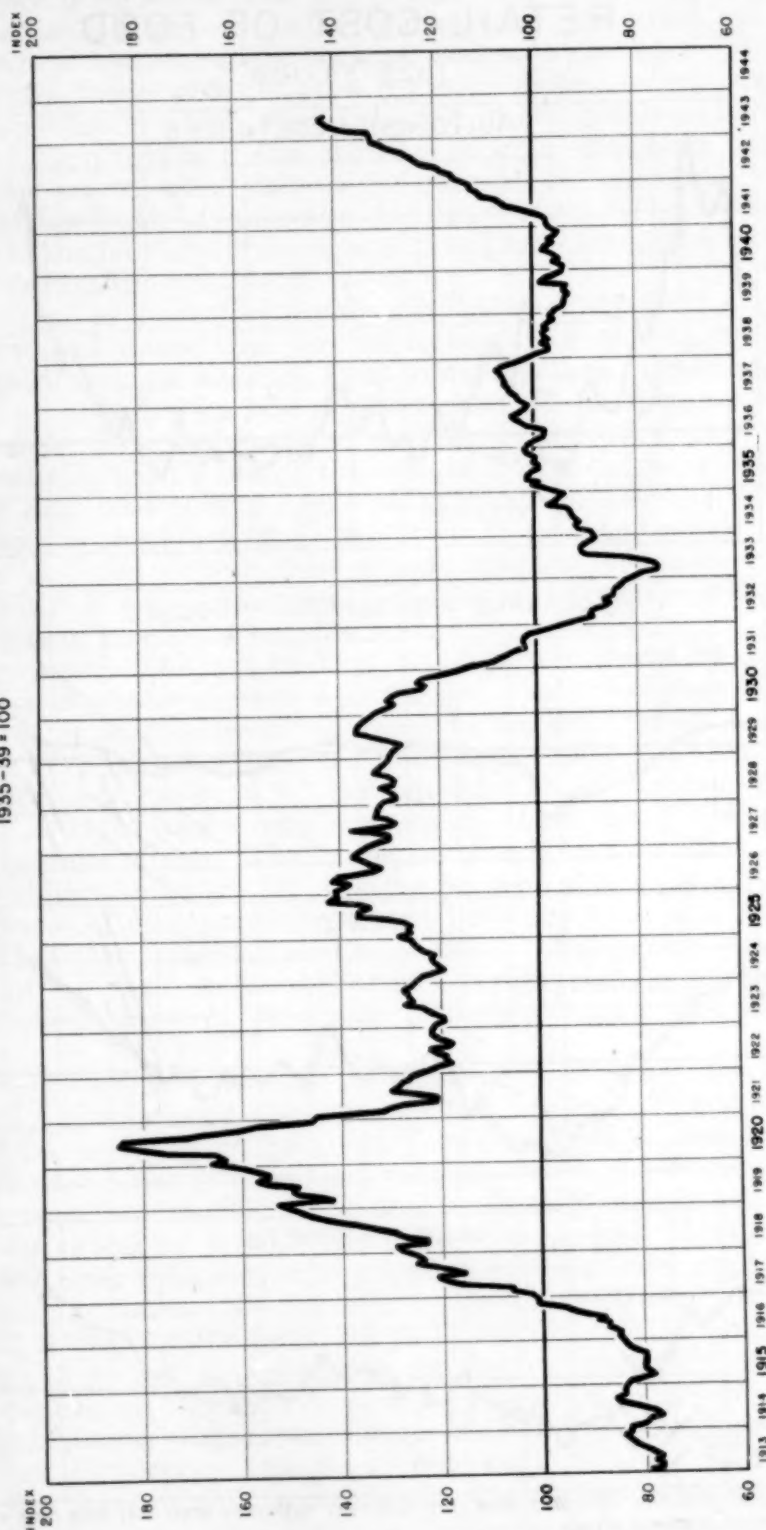
TABLE 2.—Indexes of Retail Costs of Food in 56¹ Large Cities Combined,² by Commodity Groups, in Specified Months
[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1943			1942			1941	1939
	June 15 ³	May 18	Apr. 20	Sept. 15	June 16	May 12	Jan. 14	Aug. 15
All foods.....	141.9	143.0	140.6	126.6	123.2	121.6	97.8	93.5
Cereals and bakery products.....	107.5	107.6	107.5	105.4	105.1	105.2	94.9	93.4
Meats.....	138.3	138.3	138.0	130.6	126.6	124.3	101.1	95.7
Beef and veal.....	131.4	131.2	130.5	126.0	123.3	124.1	109.4	99.6
Pork.....	125.4	125.5	126.0	124.0	121.9	123.2	86.1	88.0
Lamb.....	142.7	141.6	138.7	133.7	130.7	118.2	98.7	98.8
Chickens.....	147.2	147.6	146.4	133.7	123.3	113.4	97.2	94.6
Fish, fresh and canned.....	201.1	200.5	207.0	168.2	158.3	150.9	118.7	99.6
Dairy products.....	133.6	136.9	137.1	127.7	122.1	123.3	105.1	93.1
Eggs.....	146.2	142.1	141.3	155.2	119.7	115.4	97.4	90.7
Fruits and vegetables.....	187.7	190.8	179.5	129.7	133.8	128.7	93.3	92.4
Fresh.....	202.0	205.8	191.2	130.3	136.7	130.0	93.4	92.8
Canned.....	130.4	131.1	132.4	123.8	122.2	122.7	91.4	91.6
Dried.....	158.4	158.0	157.7	143.4	132.6	131.2	99.6	90.3
Beverages.....	124.5	124.5	124.9	123.8	122.6	124.6	90.9	94.9
Fats and oils.....	126.4	126.3	126.6	120.7	120.0	122.4	80.3	84.5
Sugar and sweets.....	126.5	127.6	128.4	127.0	126.7	127.1	95.3	95.6

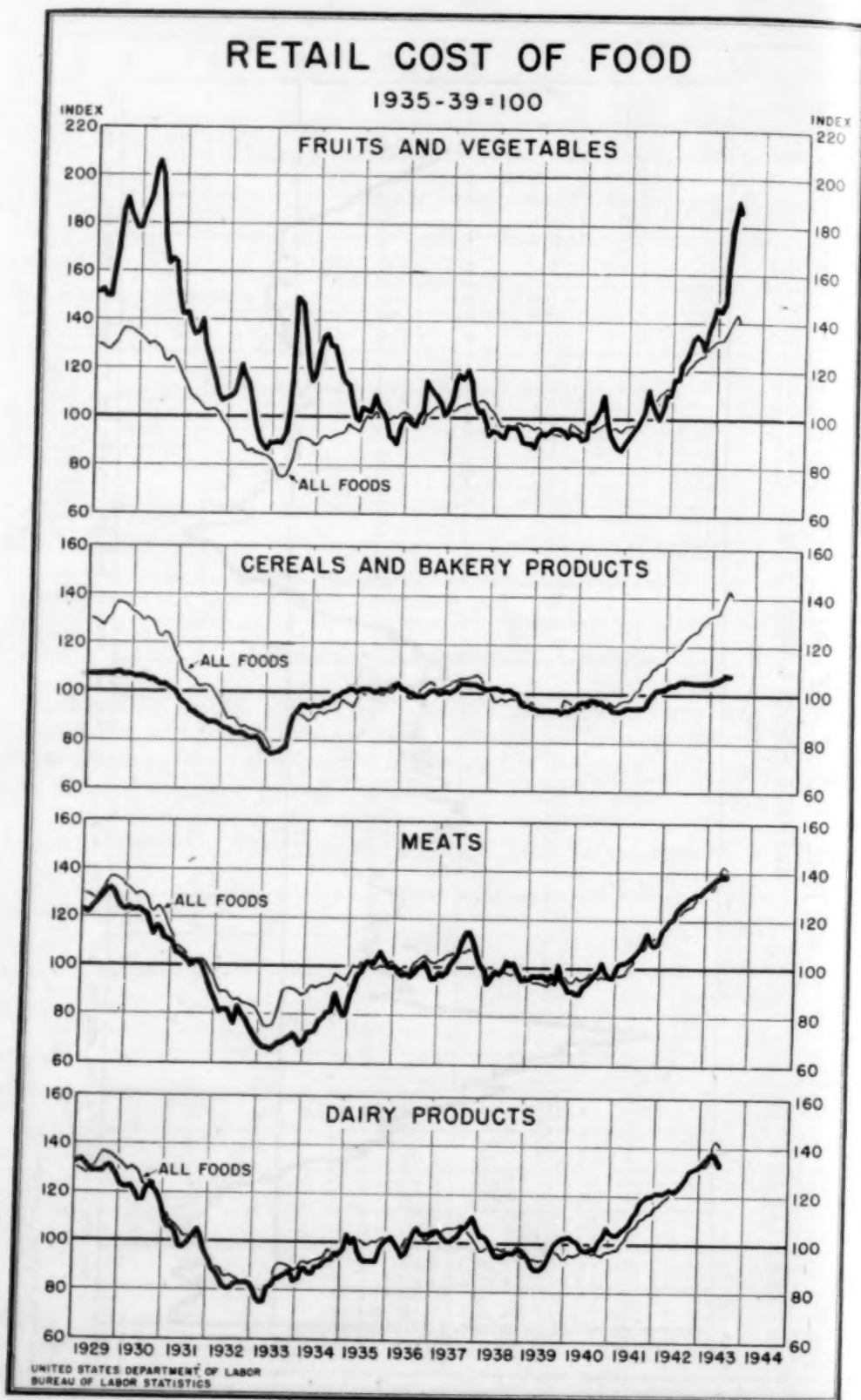
¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.² Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights.³ Preliminary.⁴ Revised.

RETAIL COST OF ALL FOODS AVERAGE FOR 51 LARGE CITIES

1935-39 = 100



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



Cereals and bakery products.—The index for this group rose by 0.1 percent between April 20 and May 18 and declined by the same amount between mid-May and mid-June. The increase from April to May was due to slight advances for macaroni, corn meal, rye bread and whole-wheat bread, vanilla cookies, and soda crackers. Between May and June there were declines for corn flakes, rolled oats, and soda crackers—foods which were included in the community dollar-and-cent ceiling program. The group as a whole has been the most stable in the index, with only a 2.3-percent advance above June 1942 and a 15-percent advance above August 1939. This stability is largely due to the fact that the prices of bread have remained relatively unchanged during the past year.

Meats.—Meat prices edged up slightly between April 20 and May 18, but remained unchanged on the average for the country as a whole in the following 4 weeks. Pork prices declined somewhat in the 2-month interval following the establishment of dollar-and-cent ceilings on April 1. Prices of beef and veal moved up less than 1 percent for the 2 months, with most of the rise occurring between April and May. The new beef ceiling prices established on May 17 were not fully reflected in the index until the June 15 pricing period. Prices of chickens declined during this period; supplies available through regular retail channels were greatly decreased and there were widespread reports of black-market dealings.

Dairy products.—The roll-back of retail butter prices on June 10 resulted in a decrease of over 5 cents per pound between May 18 and June 15, or a 9.2-percent decrease as compared with a decline of one-half of 1 percent between mid-April and mid-May. This decrease, accompanied by a 0.7-percent drop in the average price of fresh milk, brought dairy products as a whole down 2.4 percent between May and June. The index for the group on June 15 was 27 percent above January 1941 and 9.4 percent above June 1942.

Eggs.—Prices of eggs rose 0.6 percent between April and May and 2.9 percent between mid-May and mid-June. The aggregate advance was less than the usual seasonal change. By June 15, egg prices were 50 percent above January 1941 and 22 percent higher than in June 1942.

Fruits and vegetables.—Prices of fruits and vegetables increased very sharply throughout the winter and spring. There was an increase of 6.4 percent for the group between April 20 and May 18. Prices declined 1.6 percent between mid-May and mid-June with the seasonal increase in supplies. The change in each month was principally due to prices of fresh vegetables, the largest April-to-May increases being reported for sweetpotatoes (41 percent), apples (21.7 percent), and potatoes (16 percent). Prices for June 15 showed decreases of 9 percent for potatoes and green beans, 12 percent for spinach, and 13 percent for cabbage. Apples, not under direct control by OPA, continued to advance and registered an increase of 15.5 percent during this period, and grapefruit and oranges advanced seasonally by 11 percent and 4 percent, respectively. Widespread reports of shortages of onions accompanied increases in prices for the 2-month period.

Retail costs of canned fruits and vegetables declined, following the establishment of dollar-and-cent ceilings by the OPA in many communities for a large number of brands. Prices of dried fruits and

vegetables moved up slightly during the two months, as higher prices for navy beans were reported on May 18 and higher prices for dried prunes on June 15.

Prices of fruits and vegetables, including fresh, canned and dried, have shown the greatest advance of any food group during the war period. In June prices for the group as a whole averaged twice as high as in January 1941, while fresh produce advanced 116 percent for the same period.

Beverages.—The index for beverages decreased 0.3 percent from April 20 to May 18 as the result of a decline in coffee prices, offset to a limited extent by rising tea prices. The average remained substantially unchanged for June 15. The decrease in coffee prices was accompanied by announcements that the OPA planned a more liberal coffee ration as a result of increased supplies. According to reports, shortages of tea are general, and there has been a change from packaged or bulk tea to large sales of tea bags.

Fats and oils.—The cost of fats and oils declined slightly from April 20 to May 18 and then rose by approximately the same amount between May and June. The decreases during the first period were for lard in cartons and hydrogenated shortening sold in containers. However, in June, shortening prices again increased, and there were advances for oleomargarine and peanut butter. There was a continued decrease in the price of lard in cartons.

Sugar and sweets.—The index for this group declined steadily from mid-April to mid-June. Sugar prices were lower as mandatory retail margins were established by the OPA, accompanied by published dollar-and-cent community ceiling prices. Prices of corn sirup remained relatively unchanged.

Average prices of 78 foods in 56 cities combined are given for several periods in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ April, May, and June 1943, May, June, and September 1942, and January 1941

Commodity	1943			1942			1941
	June 15 ²	May 18	Apr. 20	Sept. 15	June 16	May 12	Jan. 14
Cereals and bakery products:							
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds..	61.1	60.8	61.1	54.3	51.2	51.6	41.4
Macaroni.....pound..	15.5	15.3	15.0	14.1	14.2	14.2	13.8
Wheat cereal ³28 ounces..	23.2	23.7	24.1	24.0	24.1	24.1	23.5
Corn flakes.....8 ounces..	6.7	6.8	7.0	7.0	7.2	7.2	7.1
Corn meal.....pound..	5.6	5.6	5.5	5.0	4.7	4.7	4.2
Rice ³do..	12.6	12.7	12.8	12.5	12.2	12.3	7.9
Rolled oats.....do..	8.6	8.7	8.9	8.7	8.6	8.6	7.1
Flour, pancake ³20 ounces..	10.5	10.6	10.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Bakery products:							
Bread, white.....pound..	8.9	8.9	⁵ 8.9	8.7	8.7	8.7	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do..	9.8	9.8	9.7	9.5	9.6	9.5	8.7
Bread, rye.....do..	9.9	9.9	9.8	9.7	9.7	9.7	9.0
Vanilla cookies.....do..	29.2	29.1	29.0	27.0	27.8	27.7	25.1
Soda crackers.....do..	17.7	17.8	17.7	16.6	16.4	16.4	15.0
Meats:							
Beef:							
Round steak.....do..	47.0	46.8	45.8	44.2	43.4	44.2	38.6
Rib roast.....do..	37.6	37.7	36.5	34.7	33.8	34.0	31.5
Chuck roast.....do..	31.7	31.8	31.9	30.0	29.1	28.9	25.2
Stew meat ³do..	34.9	35.0	35.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Liver.....do..	37.6	37.5	37.4	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Hamburger.....do..	32.1	32.2	32.9	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Veal:							
Cutlets.....do..	50.7	51.3	55.4	54.9	53.8	53.6	45.2
Roast, boned and rolled ³do..	38.0	37.7	37.2	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Pork:							
Chops.....do..	41.9	41.9	42.1	43.1	42.3	43.2	29.1
Bacon, sliced.....do..	45.7	45.7	45.1	40.9	39.1	39.3	30.1
Ham, sliced.....do..	58.8	⁵ 59.3	60.2	59.6	58.9	58.8	45.1
Ham, whole.....do..	39.8	39.8	39.8	38.3	37.7	37.8	26.2
Salt pork.....do..	24.7	24.7	24.9	23.8	23.7	24.0	16.7
Liver ³do..	23.5	23.6	23.6	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Sausage ³do..	38.1	38.3	38.3	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Bologna, big ³do..	34.1	33.8	33.7	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)
Lamb:							
Leg.....do..	41.8	41.8	39.9	37.9	37.0	33.8	27.8
Rib chops.....do..	49.3	48.6	48.7	47.1	46.1	41.3	35.0
Poultry:							
Roasting chickens.....do..	44.4	45.4	⁵ 46.2	42.5	39.3	36.1	31.1
Fish:							
Fish (fresh, frozen).....do..	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)	(⁶)
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can..	24.1	24.0	23.3	21.8	21.6	21.8	15.7
Salmon, red ³do..	41.6	41.4	⁵ 41.4	40.6	40.1	40.0	26.4
Dairy products:							
Butter.....pound..	50.5	55.6	55.9	50.6	44.3	45.7	38.0
Cheese.....do..	38.5	38.4	38.4	34.3	33.9	34.0	27.0
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart..	15.5	15.6	15.6	15.0	14.9	14.9	13.0
Milk, fresh (grocery).....do..	14.4	14.4	14.4	13.5	13.5	13.5	11.9
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ³do..	15.1	15.2	15.2	14.5	14.4	14.4	12.7
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can..	10.1	10.1	10.1	8.9	8.7	8.7	7.1
Eggs, fresh.....dozen..	51.7	50.2	49.9	55.2	42.4	40.9	34.9
Fruits and vegetables:							
Fresh fruits and vegetables:							
Fruits:							
Apples.....pound..	14.9	12.9	10.6	6.2	9.4	7.5	5.2
Bananas.....do..	11.7	11.7	⁵ 11.8	10.3	10.5	12.0	6.6
Oranges.....dozen..	43.7	42.2	39.9	39.1	36.2	31.4	27.3
Grapefruit ³each..	8.7	7.8	⁵ 6.7	9.4	7.5	6.3	(⁷)
Vegetables:							
Beans, green.....pound..	15.8	17.4	26.8	11.6	10.2	13.4	14.0
Cabbage.....do..	10.0	11.5	11.5	3.9	5.2	4.5	3.4
Carrots.....bunch..	8.3	8.2	7.9	6.9	6.9	6.6	6.0
Lettuce.....head..	15.2	16.5	16.0	12.5	10.4	9.2	8.4
Onions.....pound..	9.0	8.6	8.5	4.5	5.0	6.8	3.6
Potatoes.....15 pounds..	84.2	92.5	79.7	48.3	57.9	53.0	29.2
Spinach.....pound..	10.2	11.6	12.7	10.7	7.4	7.4	7.3
Sweet potatoes.....do..	18.1	17.9	12.7	6.4	5.9	5.4	5.0
Beets ³bunch..	11.6	⁵ 11.6	11.5	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)	(⁴)

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Average Retail Prices of 78 Foods in 56 Large Cities Combined, April, May, and June 1943, May, June, and September 1942, and January 1941—Continued

Commodity	1943			1942			1941
	June 15	May 18	Apr. 20	Sept. 15	June 16	May 12	Jan. 14
Fruits and vegetables—Continued.							
Canned fruits and vegetables:							
Fruits:							
Peaches.....No. 2½ can..	Cents 26.5	Cents 26.5	Cents 26.4	Cents 24.0	Cents 23.3	Cents 23.3	Cents 16.5
Pineapple.....do.....	28.3	28.7	29.5	28.3	27.0	27.1	20.9
Grapefruit juice.....No. 2 can..	14.1	14.0	14.0	12.4	10.2	9.8	(7)
Vegetables:							
Beans, green.....do.....	14.8	15.0	15.3	13.7	13.9	14.0	10.0
Corn.....do.....	14.0	14.0	14.2	13.3	13.0	13.0	10.7
Peas.....do.....	15.1	15.5	15.6	14.6	15.7	15.8	13.2
Tomatoes.....do.....	12.6	12.8	12.9	11.6	12.0	12.1	8.4
Soup, vegetable ¹11-oz. can..	13.1	13.1	13.0	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Dried fruits and vegetables:							
Fruits:							
Prunes.....pound.....	16.5	16.4	16.5	14.8	12.5	12.3	9.6
Vegetables:							
Navy beans.....do.....	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.1	8.9	9.0	6.5
Soup, dehydrated, chicken noodle ¹ounce..	3.7	3.7	3.8	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Beverages:							
Coffee.....pound.....	30.0	30.0	30.1	28.7	28.4	28.9	20.7
Tea.....¼ pound.....	21.6	21.5	21.2	22.4	22.1	24.4	17.6
Coconut ²½ pound.....	9.4	9.2	8.9	10.2	10.3	10.2	9.1
Fats and oils:							
Lard.....pound.....	19.0	19.1	19.3	17.3	17.0	17.9	9.3
Shortening other than lard:							
In cartons.....do.....	20.0	20.2	20.1	19.5	19.5	19.8	11.3
In other containers.....do.....	24.6	24.3	24.4	24.4	25.6	25.8	18.3
Salad dressing.....pint.....	25.2	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.2	25.4	20.1
Oleomargarine.....pound.....	23.6	23.5	23.5	22.4	22.4	22.4	15.6
Peanut butter.....do.....	33.1	32.5	32.2	27.8	26.0	26.9	17.9
Oil, cooking or salad ³pint..	30.4	30.5	30.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Sugar and sweets:							
Sugar.....pound.....	6.8	6.8	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.9	5.1
Corn sirup.....24 ounces.....	15.6	15.6	15.5	15.1	14.7	14.8	13.6
Molasses ⁴18 ounces.....	15.5	15.6	15.6	14.9	14.7	14.5	13.4
Apple butter ⁵16 ounces.....	13.0	12.9	13.4	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)

¹ Data are based on 51 cities combined prior to January 1943.² Preliminary.³ Not included in index.⁴ First priced February 1943.⁵ Revised.⁶ Composite prices not computed.⁷ First priced October 1941.

Details by Cities

Between April 20 and May 18 food prices rose in 45 of the 56 cities surveyed. The largest increases occurred in New Haven, Detroit, Bridgeport, Scranton, Cleveland, and Denver, where the rise in the prices of all foods was 3.5 percent or more, primarily as a result of the large advances for fresh fruits and vegetables. For this same period early supplies of produce resulted in declines in price in New Orleans; Jackson, Miss.; Wichita; Jacksonville; and San Francisco.

For the period from May 18 to June 20 food prices decreased in 41 cities. Declines of from 2.3 percent to 2.6 percent, resulting from the substantial seasonal decreases in the prices of fresh vegetables, were reported for Scranton, Houston, Seattle, Jackson, and Milwaukee. Meat prices also declined in Jackson, Houston, and Scranton. There was a general decrease in most foods in Jackson. Average increases of more than 1 percent for all foods were reported for Cleveland, Butte, Knoxville, and San Francisco, where prices for fresh fruits and vegetables advanced. Meat prices were also somewhat higher in Cleveland, Butte, and Knoxville.

Indexes of food costs by cities are shown in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Average Retail Cost of All Foods by Cities,¹ April, May, and June 1943, May, June, and September 1942, and January 1941

[1935-39=100]

City	1943			1942			1941
	June 15 ²	May 18	Apr. 20	Sept. 15	June 16	May 12	Jan. 14
United States.....	141.9	143.0	140.6	126.6	123.2	121.6	97.3
New England:							
Boston.....	136.8	138.1	137.1	124.4	119.9	118.3	95.2
Bridgeport.....	143.8	144.7	139.6	127.1	124.0	121.3	96.5
Fall River.....	140.8	140.5	139.3	125.7	122.6	120.8	97.5
Manchester.....	143.4	142.3	139.2	126.8	125.3	124.0	96.6
New Haven.....	143.1	145.7	138.4	126.2	122.3	120.6	95.7
Portland, Maine.....	140.6	140.3	³ 137.3	125.8	122.9	121.7	95.3
Providence.....	139.7	141.0	137.0	126.3	122.8	122.1	96.3
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	145.2	147.8	144.0	127.6	127.3	125.2	100.2
Newark.....	142.1	142.4	³ 140.7	128.0	122.3	120.9	98.8
New York.....	141.4	143.3	139.9	125.2	120.4	118.0	99.5
Philadelphia.....	139.2	141.6	³ 140.5	123.9	119.7	119.4	95.0
Pittsburgh.....	142.3	142.4	139.4	125.9	124.7	121.4	98.0
Rochester.....	138.6	139.6	³ 139.3	125.2	126.2	122.3	99.9
Scranton.....	144.4	148.3	143.3	125.6	123.0	121.0	97.5
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	140.0	141.1	138.6	124.9	122.1	121.7	98.2
Cincinnati.....	139.2	138.3	138.2	126.9	124.3	122.4	96.5
Cleveland.....	140.5	146.3	141.4	127.3	127.4	124.1	99.2
Columbus, Ohio.....	134.5	136.3	134.8	119.6	120.3	118.6	93.4
Detroit.....	141.6	143.4	137.4	124.7	124.5	122.4	97.0
Indianapolis.....	140.3	140.2	138.0	127.1	125.7	125.0	98.2
Milwaukee.....	138.7	141.9	137.4	121.0	122.0	119.8	95.9
Peoria.....	146.9	148.7	144.0	130.7	129.6	129.0	99.0
Springfield, Ill.....	146.4	148.5	144.8	130.2	128.4	128.0	96.2
West North Central:							
Cedar Rapids.....	143.3	144.3	141.1	121.2	129.9	123.9	95.9
Kansas City.....	136.0	137.9	137.4	120.7	119.0	118.8	92.4
Minneapolis.....	134.1	134.9	133.5	123.3	121.4	120.9	99.0
Omaha.....	137.7	137.9	135.2	123.2	120.8	119.9	97.9
St. Louis.....	143.3	144.7	142.4	126.7	125.9	123.8	99.2
St. Paul.....	133.7	134.8	133.6	120.8	119.2	118.7	98.6
Wichita.....	149.7	150.7	152.7	132.0	130.1	129.0	97.2
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	143.9	142.9	140.3	125.9	121.8	120.4	94.3
Baltimore.....	152.5	152.6	³ 148.6	131.2	127.1	125.8	97.9
Charleston, S. C.....	139.0	140.3	140.4	126.6	122.9	123.2	95.9
Jacksonville.....	151.7	151.5	153.4	134.2	129.3	127.4	98.8
Norfolk.....	151.7	153.3	152.0	131.9	128.5	126.1	95.8
Richmond.....	139.6	141.5	142.4	126.2	122.9	120.9	93.7
Savannah.....	153.8	153.8	³ 152.5	133.3	129.4	130.3	100.5
Washington, D. C.....	142.7	142.5	139.9	128.1	123.2	120.7	97.7
Winston-Salem.....	139.7	140.0	138.2	119.8	120.1	119.3	93.7
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	141.9	140.7	141.0	125.3	120.9	120.5	96.0
Jackson.....	149.3	153.0	155.9	141.0	130.3	128.3	105.3
Knoxville.....	158.5	156.6	156.7	134.2	134.4	131.0	97.1
Louisville.....	139.5	141.5	138.4	124.2	123.2	122.6	95.5
Memphis.....	148.3	150.1	³ 149.2	129.7	124.1	123.5	94.2
Mobile.....	149.8	149.9	³ 150.5	133.9	128.4	126.8	97.8
West South Central:							
Dallas.....	136.6	138.2	³ 137.0	123.7	117.6	116.8	92.6
Houston.....	140.0	143.7	³ 143.4	130.8	124.9	125.9	102.6
Little Rock.....	140.1	141.8	140.8	129.2	123.3	123.2	95.6
New Orleans.....	152.2	152.5	160.7	135.9	128.9	129.0	101.9
Mountain:							
Butte.....	140.6	138.3	134.7	124.6	123.5	121.5	98.7
Denver.....	141.0	143.8	139.0	126.8	123.7	122.9	94.8
Salt Lake City.....	144.1	144.7	142.2	130.1	126.8	124.2	97.5
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	146.8	146.2	146.2	137.9	129.8	128.1	101.8
Portland, Oreg.....	152.1	153.6	150.3	141.2	134.6	134.5	101.7
San Francisco.....	149.8	148.0	149.7	133.5	126.1	125.5	99.6
Seattle.....	146.6	150.3	³ 145.9	137.3	129.4	129.9	101.0

¹ Aggregate costs of 61 foods (54 foods prior to March 1943) in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. Primary use is for time-to-time comparisons rather than place-to-place comparisons.

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.

⁴ Indexes based on June 1940=100.0.

⁵ Includes Portsmouth and Newport News.

Annual Average Indexes, 1913 to June 1943

Annual average indexes of food costs for the years 1913-42, and monthly indexes for January 1942 through June 1943, are presented in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 56 Large Cities Combined,¹ 1913 to June 1943

[1935-39=100]

Year	All-foods index	Year	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index	Year and month	All-foods index
1913	79.9	1927	132.3	1941	105.5	1942—Con.	
1914	81.8	1928	130.8	1942	123.9	October	129.6
1915	80.9	1929	132.5			November	131.1
1916	90.8	1930	126.0	1942		December	132.7
1917	116.9	1931	103.9				
1918	134.4	1932	86.5	January	116.2		
1919	149.8	1933	84.1	February	116.8	1943	
1920	168.8	1934	93.7	March	118.6	January	133.0
1921	128.3	1935	100.4	April	119.6	February	133.6
1922	119.9	1936	101.3	May	121.6	March	137.4
1923	124.0	1937	105.3	June	123.2	April	140.6
1924	122.8	1938	97.8	July	124.6	May	143.0
1925	132.9	1939	95.2	August	126.1	June	141.9
1926	137.4	1940	96.6	September	126.6		

¹ Indexes based on 51 cities combined prior to March 1943.

Electricity and Gas: Price Changes Between March and June 1943¹

Prices of Electricity

CHANGES in costs of electricity between March and June 1943 were reported in 3 of the 51 cities covered in the Bureau's regular survey. In Richmond Borough, New York City, an adjustment for fuel costs brought the cost of electricity for June to a point 0.7 percent above that for March. In Memphis the surcharge of 15 percent which had been applicable to electricity bills for several years was discontinued in April 1943. A decrease of slightly less than 2 percent in Washington, D. C., resulted from a rate change which was retroactive to March 1, 1943.

Prices of Gas

Changes in costs of gas were reported in June for 4 cities serving manufactured gas and 3 serving natural gas. No changes occurred in cities supplying mixed manufactured and natural gas. The change which took place in each of the 7 cities, classified by kinds of gas, is shown below:

	Manufactured gas	Natural gas
Rate change	New York (seasonal)	Atlanta
Adjustment for fuel costs	Boston	
	Manchester	
	Portland, Maine	
Change in heating value of gas		Houston
		New Orleans

¹ Quarterly reports covering 51 cities for electricity and 50 cities for gas published for March, June, and September show changes for the preceding 3 months. The December report presents prices effective on the 15th of December and a summary of all changes during the year.

The adjustment for increased fuel costs in the 3 New England cities affected monthly bills by less than 1 percent. In New York City the usual summer reductions to consumers in the Bronx, Manhattan, and Queens Boroughs became effective in April. The decreases amounted to 6.2 percent for 19.6 therms, with greater reductions for the use of larger quantities of gas. A new rate schedule in Atlanta lowered the cost of gas 4.5 percent for 10.6 therms, with lesser reductions for a greater use of gas. Changes in heating value of the natural gas served resulted in a slight increase in costs for the majority of consumers in Houston and a slight decrease for consumers in New Orleans.

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Wholesale Prices

Wholesale Prices in June 1943

FOLLOWING an uninterrupted advance extending over the past 12 months, the Bureau of Labor Statistics comprehensive index of commodity prices in primary markets¹ reacted in June and dropped 0.3 percent. Weakening prices for livestock and its products, particularly meat and butter, largely accounted for the decline. The all-commodity index fell to 103.8 percent of the 1926 average from the peak of 104.1 reached in May.

Prices for foods in primary markets averaged 0.8 percent lower in June than in May. Chemicals and allied products declined 0.2 percent, and miscellaneous commodities, 0.1 percent. Farm product prices continued to rise and advanced 0.4 percent. Fuel and lighting materials rose 0.2 percent, and building materials and housefurnishing goods, 0.1 percent. The indexes for three groups—hides and leather products, textile products, and metals and metal products—remained unchanged at the May level.

Further increases in prices for agricultural commodities resulted in an advance of 0.3 percent in the raw materials group index. Manufactured commodities, on the other hand, declined 0.6 percent, and semimanufactured commodities were 0.2 percent lower.

Continued sharp advances in primary market prices for most fresh fruits and vegetables in June, together with higher prices for barley, oats, and rye, were largely responsible for the increase of 0.4 percent in the farm products group index, which in June had reached its highest point from late in 1920. Quotations for livestock averaged 1.5 percent lower because of a substantial decline in prices for sheep, together with a decrease of 3 percent for hogs and nearly 1 percent for steers. Average prices for corn, wheat, cotton, flaxseed, and hay were somewhat lower than in May.

Lower prices for staple foods, such as meats, potatoes, and white flour, accounted for a decline of 0.8 percent in average prices for foods at wholesale in June. Higher prices were reported for bread in some markets, and for oatmeal, corn meal, and rye flour. In addition, prices advanced for citrus fruits, apples, onions, eggs, codfish, and peanut butter.

¹ The Bureau of Labor Statistics wholesale price data for the most part represent prices prevailing in the "first commercial transaction." They are prices quoted in primary markets, at principal distribution points.

The hides and leather products and textile markets continued steady.

Average prices for fuel and lighting materials rose slightly as a result of increased prices for bituminous coal in some areas, for kerosene, and for higher realized values for gas and electricity.

The metals and metal products markets remained firm.

An upward revision in ceiling prices for soft woods and higher prices for rosin and turpentine were mainly responsible for an increase of 0.1 percent in the building materials group index. Lower prices were reported for cement, certain paint materials, and plaster and plaster board.

A substantial decline in prices for potash contributed to a minor decrease in the chemicals and allied products group index. Quotations for stearic acid and ergot advanced.

In the miscellaneous group, higher prices were reported for cylinder oil and cigar boxes.

From June 1942 to June 1943, average prices for the nearly 900 commodities included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of commodity prices advanced 5.3 percent. This rise was almost entirely due to higher prices for farm commodities. The farm products group index rose nearly 21 percent during the year period and foods increased over 10 percent. Smaller increases were reported for fuel and lighting materials, 3.3 percent; for chemicals and allied products, 2.9 percent; for miscellaneous commodities, 1.8 percent; and for building materials, 0.5 percent. Hides and leather products, textile products, metals and metal products, and housefurnishing goods were fractionally lower in June 1943 than in June 1942.

Most commodities have registered broad price increases since the outbreak of the war in August 1939. Farm products led the rise with a gain of nearly 107 percent. In this period of approximately 4 years, food prices advanced 63 percent; textile products, almost 44 percent; chemicals and allied products, 35 percent; hides and leather products, building materials, and miscellaneous commodities, about 25 percent; housefurnishing goods, 20 percent; and fuel and lighting materials and metals and metal products, 11 percent.

Percentage comparisons of the June 1943 level of wholesale prices with May 1943, June 1942, and August 1939, with corresponding index numbers, are given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, June 1943, With Comparisons for May 1943, June 1942, and August 1939

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	June 1943	May 1943	Percent of change	June 1942	Percent of change	August 1939	Percent of increase
All commodities.....	103.8	104.1	-0.3	98.6	+5.3	75.0	38.4
Farm products.....	126.2	125.7	+0.4	104.4	+20.9	61.0	106.9
Grains.....	113.8	113.1	+0.6	88.8	+28.2	51.5	121.0
Livestock and poultry.....	128.6	130.5	-1.5	116.9	+10.0	66.0	94.8
Other farm products.....	127.2	125.2	+1.6	100.5	+26.6	60.1	111.6
Foods.....	109.6	110.5	-0.8	99.3	+10.4	67.2	63.1
Dairy products.....	109.5	113.1	-3.2	92.0	+19.0	67.9	61.3
Cereal products.....	93.6	93.6	0	87.2	+7.3	71.9	30.2
Fruits and vegetables.....	143.6	137.7	+4.3	105.4	+36.2	58.5	145.5
Meats.....	111.6	115.9	-3.7	113.9	-2.0	73.7	51.4
Other foods.....	97.0	96.4	+0.6	91.0	+6.6	60.3	60.9
Hides and leather products.....	117.8	117.8	0	118.2	-0.3	92.7	27.1
Shoes.....	126.4	126.4	0	126.4	0	100.8	25.4
Hides and skins.....	116.0	116.0	0	118.5	-2.1	77.2	50.3
Leather.....	101.3	101.3	0	101.3	0	84.0	20.6
Other leather products.....	115.2	115.2	0	115.2	0	97.1	18.6
Textile products.....	97.4	97.4	0	97.6	-0.2	67.8	43.7
Clothing.....	107.0	107.0	0	109.1	-1.9	81.5	31.3
Cotton goods.....	112.6	112.6	0	112.7	-0.1	65.5	71.9
Hosiery and underwear.....	70.5	70.5	0	70.0	+0.7	61.5	14.6
Rayon.....	30.3	30.3	0	30.3	0	28.5	6.3
Silk.....	(1)	(1)		(1)		44.3	
Woolen and worsted goods.....	112.5	112.5	0	111.0	+1.4	75.5	49.0
Other textile products.....	98.7	98.7	0	98.2	+0.5	63.7	54.9
Fuel and lighting materials.....	81.0	80.8	+0.2	78.4	+3.3	72.6	11.6
Anthracite.....	89.5	89.7	-0.2	85.7	+4.4	72.1	24.1
Bituminous coal.....	116.4	116.1	+0.3	109.2	+6.6	96.0	21.3
Coke.....	122.4	122.4	0	122.1	+0.2	104.2	17.5
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)		63.3		75.8	
Gas.....	(1)	77.5		81.2		86.7	
Petroleum and products.....	62.6	62.5	+0.2	59.8	+4.7	51.7	21.1
Metals and metal products.....	103.8	103.8	0	103.9	-0.1	93.2	11.4
Agricultural implements.....	96.9	96.9	0	96.9	0	93.5	3.6
Farm machinery.....	98.0	98.0	0	98.0	0	94.7	3.5
Iron and steel.....	97.3	97.2	+0.1	97.2	+0.1	95.1	2.3
Motor vehicles.....	112.8	112.8	0	112.8	0	92.5	21.9
Nonferrous metals.....	86.0	86.0	0	85.6	+0.5	74.6	15.3
Plumbing and heating.....	90.4	90.4	0	98.5	-8.2	79.3	14.0
Building materials.....	110.6	110.5	+0.1	110.1	+0.5	89.6	23.4
Brick and tile.....	99.0	98.9	+0.1	98.1	+0.9	90.5	9.4
Cement.....	93.6	93.9	-0.3	94.2	-0.6	91.3	2.5
Lumber.....	136.3	135.6	+0.5	131.7	+3.5	90.1	51.3
Paint and paint materials.....	102.0	102.2	-0.2	100.3	+1.7	82.1	24.2
Plumbing and heating.....	90.4	90.4	0	98.5	-8.2	79.3	14.0
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	101.7	101.6	+0.1	103.8	-2.0	89.5	13.6
Chemicals and allied products.....	100.0	100.2	-0.2	97.2	+2.9	74.2	34.8
Chemicals.....	96.4	96.4	0	96.5	-0.1	83.8	15.0
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	165.2	165.1	+0.1	129.1	+28.0	77.1	114.3
Fertilizer materials.....	78.6	80.0	-1.8	78.4	+0.3	65.5	20.0
Mixed fertilizers.....	85.8	85.8	0	82.8	+3.6	73.1	17.4
Oils and fats.....	102.0	102.0	0	108.5	-6.0	40.6	151.2
Housefurnishing goods.....	102.8	102.7	+0.1	102.9	-0.1	85.6	20.1
Furnishings.....	107.3	107.3	0	108.1	-0.7	90.0	19.2
Furniture.....	98.1	98.0	+0.1	97.4	+0.7	81.1	21.0
Miscellaneous.....	91.8	91.9	-0.1	90.2	+1.8	73.3	25.2
Automobile tires and tubes.....	73.0	73.0	0	73.0	0	60.5	20.7
Cattle feed.....	150.6	150.6	0	140.0	+7.6	68.4	120.2
Paper and pulp.....	104.3	104.3	0	101.6	+2.7	80.0	30.4
Rubber, crude.....	46.2	46.2	0	46.3	-0.2	34.9	32.4
Other miscellaneous.....	94.9	95.2	-0.3	93.3	+1.7	81.3	16.7
Raw materials.....	114.3	114.0	+0.3	99.8	+14.5	66.5	71.9
Semimanufactured articles.....	92.8	93.0	-0.2	92.8	0	74.5	24.6
Manufactured products.....	100.1	100.7	-0.6	98.6	+1.5	79.1	26.5
All commodities other than farm products.....	98.7	99.2	-0.5	97.1	+1.6	77.9	26.7
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	90.8	96.7	+0.1	95.6	+1.3	80.1	20.8

1 Data not available.

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to June 1943

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1942, inclusive, and by months from June 1942 to June 1943, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting materials	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
1940.....	67.7	71.3	100.8	73.8	71.7	95.8	94.8	77.0	88.5	77.3	78.6
1941.....	82.4	82.7	108.3	84.8	76.2	99.4	103.2	84.6	94.3	82.0	87.3
1942.....	105.9	99.6	117.7	96.9	78.5	103.8	110.2	97.1	102.4	89.7	98.8
1942: June.....	104.4	99.3	118.2	97.6	78.4	103.9	110.1	97.2	102.9	90.2	98.6
July.....	105.3	99.2	118.2	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.3	96.7	102.8	89.8	98.7
August.....	106.1	100.8	118.2	97.3	79.0	103.8	110.3	96.2	102.7	88.9	99.2
September.....	107.8	102.4	118.1	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.4	96.2	102.5	88.8	99.6
October.....	109.0	103.4	117.8	97.1	79.0	103.8	110.4	96.2	102.5	88.6	100.0
November.....	110.5	103.5	117.8	97.1	79.1	103.8	110.1	99.5	102.5	90.1	100.3
December.....	113.8	104.3	117.8	97.2	79.2	103.8	110.0	99.5	102.5	90.5	101.0
1943: January.....	117.0	105.2	117.8	97.3	79.3	103.8	109.8	100.2	102.5	90.7	101.9
February.....	119.0	105.8	117.8	97.3	79.8	103.8	110.2	100.3	102.6	90.9	102.5
March.....	122.8	107.4	117.8	97.3	80.3	103.8	110.4	100.0	102.6	91.4	103.4
April.....	123.9	108.4	117.8	97.4	80.6	103.8	110.3	100.1	102.6	91.6	103.7
May.....	125.7	110.5	117.8	97.4	80.8	103.8	110.5	100.2	102.7	91.9	104.1
June.....	126.2	109.6	117.8	97.4	81.0	103.8	110.6	100.0	102.8	91.8	103.8

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was shown on pages 10 to 12 of Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1941 (Serial No. R. 1434).

[illegible]

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

Summary of Reports for June 1943

THE total number of workers in nonagricultural establishments in June 1943 was 38,328,000, which was 1,663,000 more than a year ago, and about 66,000 more than in May. The gain over the month reflects the addition of almost 100,000 workers to the manufacturing division and 62,000 to the transportation and public-utilities division. The only sizable decline (99,000 employees) was in construction and was brought about by the completion of many Federal construction contracts.

Industrial and Business Employment

There were 13,778,000 wage earners employed in all manufacturing industries. Nearly 8 million of these, or 58 percent, were in industries closely associated with the production of munitions—generally the metalworking, chemical, and rubber industries. A year ago, 51 percent of manufacturing wage earners were in these industries; and in June 1939, the ratio was 36 percent.

Among the nine durable-goods groups, only iron and steel and furniture showed declines over the month. The largest increase was in the transportation-equipment group, as a result of continued expansion in aircraft and shipbuilding. Employment in this group was 2,270,000, an increase of 29,000 over May 1943 and of 827,000 from June 1942.

Among the nondurable groups, only the food group showed a sizable increase in employment over the month. Seasonal increases in canning, the beverage industries, baking, and slaughtering and meat packing raised employment in the food group to 951,000, a little more than 4 percent above May.

Both the anthracite and bituminous-coal mining industries reported declines in employment in June, owing to the strike situation. Employment in both these industries was below the June 1942 level. The anthracite industry employed 3,300 fewer wage earners, and the bituminous-coal mining industry, 56,000 fewer workers than in June 1942. The total number of wage earners employed in both coal-mining industries in June was almost 453,000.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Wage Earners and Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment in Manufacturing Industries, by Major Industry Group*¹

[Subject to revision]

Industry group	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)				Wage-earner indexes (1939=100)	
	June 1943	May 1943	April 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943
All manufacturing.....	13,778	13,694	13,733	12,282	168.2	167.2
Durable goods.....	8,212	8,159	8,145	6,823	227.4	225.9
Nondurable goods.....	5,566	5,535	5,588	5,459	121.5	120.8
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,715	1,718	1,729	1,599	173.0	173.2
Electrical machinery.....	699	695	695	528	269.8	268.3
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,250	1,243	1,237	1,078	236.6	235.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,270	2,241	2,221	1,443	1,430.4	1,412.0
Automobiles.....	667	660	653	485	165.7	164.0
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	414	410	411	378	180.6	178.8
Lumber and timber basic products.....	481	479	480	555	114.5	114.0
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	355	356	360	381	108.3	108.6
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	361	357	359	376	122.8	121.5
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,229	1,239	1,254	1,298	107.4	108.3
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	853	863	889	873	108.1	109.3
Leather and leather products.....	333	337	346	377	96.0	97.0
Food.....	951	914	910	947	111.3	106.9
Tobacco manufactures.....	89	89	92	92	95.2	95.1
Paper and allied products.....	315	312	312	312	118.6	117.7
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	333	329	330	325	101.5	100.4
Chemicals and allied products.....	742	737	744	600	257.5	255.8
Products of petroleum and coal.....	125	124	123	128	117.8	117.3
Rubber products.....	188	186	186	146	155.8	153.9
Miscellaneous industries.....	408	405	402	361	166.6	165.6

¹ The estimates and indexes presented in this table have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency and are not comparable with data shown in mimeographed releases for December 1942 and prior months. Estimates and indexes for the period January 1939 to November 1942 comparable with the data in the above table are available upon request.

Public Employment

The increase of 16,000 employees during June 1943 brought employment in the three Federal services—executive, legislative, and judicial—to a total of 3,116,000. The gain, not considering post-Christmas declines occasioned by the release of temporary postal employees, was the smallest since April 1940 and clearly reflected the influence of employment ceilings imposed by the Bureau of the Budget on all regular Federal positions.

The War and Navy Departments and other war agencies employed 2,315,000 persons, or 74 percent of all Federal employees, in June 1943. This was an increase of 892,000 from June a year ago when war-agency employment constituted 62 percent of the total.

Women in full-time jobs in the Federal executive service in May 1943 accounted for 999,500, or 35 percent, of all full-time employees. In June 1941, the last date prior to the war that data were available, women numbered 266,000, or 20 percent of all employees, in the Federal executive service. In May 1943, 54 percent of the women were in the War Department, 15 percent in the Navy Department, 11 percent in war-emergency agencies (WPB, OPA, etc.) and 20 percent in other agencies. Over three-fifths of the full-time employees in war-emergency agencies, two-fifths of those in the War Department, and approximately a fourth of those in the Navy Department and other agencies were women.

Almost all of the 42,400 project workers of the Work Projects Administration in June 1943 were working on projects in Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands. Over half the workers in Puerto Rico were engaged on the construction of Island-wide and strategic roads, and on sanitation, water, and sewer projects. The other workers were engaged mainly on the feeding program, raising and canning vegetables and fruit, and providing school lunches when schools were in session.

In July 1935 the Work Projects Administration, then called the Works Progress Administration, first started its program of providing useful work for the unemployed. Previous work programs to which the WPA was successor had given work to as high as 4,021,000 persons at one time (January 1934). The number of project workers under the WPA program reached a peak of 3,406,000 in March 1936 and thereafter fluctuated with the seasons until in the spring of 1939, a gradual but irregular decline set in. From June 1941 to June 1943, the decline in number of project workers has been rapid, dropping from 1,419,000 at the earlier date to 698,000 in June 1942 and to 42,400 in June 1943. Although all WPA projects in continental United States were liquidated as of June 30, 1943, provision was made for the continuation until November of 40,000 project workers in Puerto Rico and 1,000 in the Virgin Islands, because of the extremely poor economic conditions on these islands.

The Civilian Conservation Corps, which in May 1933 began its conservation of the country's natural resources, utilized the services of as many as 591,000 youths in August 1935. The National Youth Administration inaugurated its aid to needy students in September 1935 and its vocational training of other youths in January 1936, and in February 1941 included 949,000 persons in these two programs. In July 1942 the out-of-school work program was converted into a war production training program, but personnel did not reach the levels of prior years because of the draining off of the youth into industrial employment and the armed forces, as well as because of reduced appropriations. In May 1943, personnel of 169,000 was reported for the NYA and of 139 for the CCC. No reports were received for June 1943, however, because of the liquidation of the programs and the closing of all offices as of June 30.

On construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, more workers were added on the construction of naval and other vessels and on public housing projects during June 1943; but other types of projects, including nonresidential building, public roads, airport construction, and river, harbor, and flood control, required fewer workers and brought the employment on all Federally financed construction projects to 2,444,000 or 7,000 lower than in May 1943. Personnel on these projects, however, was 407,000 higher than in June a year ago. The slight contraseasonal decline in construction workers, which has been evident since March 1943, was mainly the result of project completions. Only 17 percent of all workers on these construction projects were employees of the Federal Government. The others were employees of contractors and subcontractors.

For the regular Federal services, data for the legislative and judicial services and for force-account employees in the executive service are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics; data for other executive-service employees are reported through the Civil Service Commission.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics receives monthly reports on employment and pay rolls for the various construction projects financed wholly or partially by Federal funds directly from the contractors and subcontractors; and for the NYA, WPA, and CCC programs, from the respective agencies.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data for the regular Federal services, for construction projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds, and for other Federal programs is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially from Federal Funds*

[Subject to revision]

Service or program	Employment			Pay rolls		
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942
Regular Federal services:						
Executive ¹	3, 106, 757	3, 091, 136	2, 275, 440	\$572, 807, 600	\$569, 993, 703	\$362, 114, 961
War agencies ²	2, 315, 402	2, 301, 602	1, 423, 398	415, 114, 000	412, 658, 418	227, 878, 114
Other agencies.....	791, 355	789, 534	852, 042	157, 693, 600	157, 335, 285	134, 236, 847
Judicial.....	2, 624	2, 622	2, 653	753, 344	749, 640	639, 382
Legislative.....	6, 152	6, 146	6, 539	1, 499, 697	1, 500, 619	1, 377, 155
Construction projects:						
Financed from regular Federal appropriations ³	2, 131, 207	2, 142, 127	1, 883, 689	493, 095, 860	492, 818, 856	352, 896, 483
War.....	2, 078, 807	2, 085, 385	1, 770, 692	482, 209, 760	481, 003, 400	334, 067, 832
Other.....	52, 400	56, 742	112, 997	10, 886, 100	11, 815, 456	18, 828, 651
Public housing.....	91, 319	86, 573	33, 257	15, 283, 200	14, 489, 061	5, 042, 561
War public works.....	11, 500	12, 160	13, 053	1, 643, 400	1, 737, 664	1, 529, 284
Financed by RFC.....	209, 700	210, 028	106, 547	40, 409, 200	40, 471, 850	19, 075, 965
War.....	209, 350	209, 628	104, 807	40, 341, 700	40, 394, 701	18, 680, 800
Other.....	350	400	1, 740	67, 500	77, 149	395, 165
Other programs:						
National Youth Administration ⁴	(⁵)	168, 640	322, 606	(⁵)	3, 651, 196	5, 946, 280
Student work program.....	(⁵)	88, 509	135, 977	(⁵)	758, 267	960, 214
War production training program ⁶	(⁵)	80, 131	186, 629	(⁵)	2, 892, 929	4, 986, 066
Work Projects Administration projects.....	42, 437	45, 981	697, 819	(⁵)	3, 060, 911	47, 923, 771
War.....	25, 688	26, 733	285, 146	(⁵)	(⁵)	19, 869, 656
Other.....	16, 749	19, 248	412, 673	(⁵)	(⁵)	28, 054, 115
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	(⁵)	139	943	(⁵)	36, 753	143, 586

¹ Includes employees in United States navy yards and on force-account construction who are also included under construction projects, and supervisory and technical employees included under NYA and CCC.

² Covers War and Navy Departments, Maritime Commission, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, Panama Canal, Office for Emergency Management, Office of Censorship, Office of Price Administration, Office of Strategic Services, Office of Economic Warfare, and the Petroleum Coordinator for War.

³ Includes ship construction and repair in U. S. navy yards and the Federally financed part thereof in private shipyards.

⁴ Beginning July 1942 the National Youth Administration was considered a training program for war work, rather than a work-relief program. Value of maintenance is included in the pay-roll data for June 1942, but excluded from those for May 1943.

⁵ Data not available because of liquidation of program.

⁶ Called the out-of-school work program prior to July 1942.

Detailed Reports for Industrial and Business Employment, May 1943

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

ESTIMATES of civil employees in nonagricultural establishments by major groups are given in table 1. With the exception of the trade and finance-service-miscellaneous groups, they are not comparable with estimates published in the September 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Comparable figures for the months from January 1939 to July 1942 are given in the October 1942 issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

The estimates are based on reports of employers to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, on data made available by the Bureau of Employment Security and the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance of the Social Security Board, and on information supplied by other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Civil Service Commission, and the Bureau of the Census. They do not include military personnel, emergency employment (such as WPA, NYA, and CCC), proprietors or self-employed persons, unpaid family workers, and domestics.

Estimates of employees in nonagricultural establishments, by States, are given each month in the Bureau of Labor Statistics mimeographed release on employment and pay rolls.

TABLE 1.—*Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Industry Divisions*

Industry division	Estimated number of employees (In thousands)			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
Total estimated employment ¹	38, 262	38, 336	38, 115	36, 346
Manufacturing	15, 911	15, 956	15, 958	14, 133
Mining	837	850	861	928
Contract construction and Federal force-account construction ..	1, 299	1, 328	1, 357	1, 909
Transportation and public utilities	3, 587	3, 552	3, 475	3, 442
Trade	6, 331	6, 423	6, 328	6, 667
Finance, service, and miscellaneous	4, 349	4, 337	4, 281	4, 309
Federal, State, and local government	5, 948	5, 890	5, 855	4, 958

¹ Estimates exclude proprietors of unincorporated businesses, self-employed persons, domestics employed in private homes, public emergency employees, and personnel in the armed forces.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 152 manufacturing industries and for 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction, water transportation, and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The employment, pay-roll, hours, and earnings figures for manufacturing, mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, brokerage, insurance, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers and executives, and for trade they relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for public utilities and 90 percent for mining.

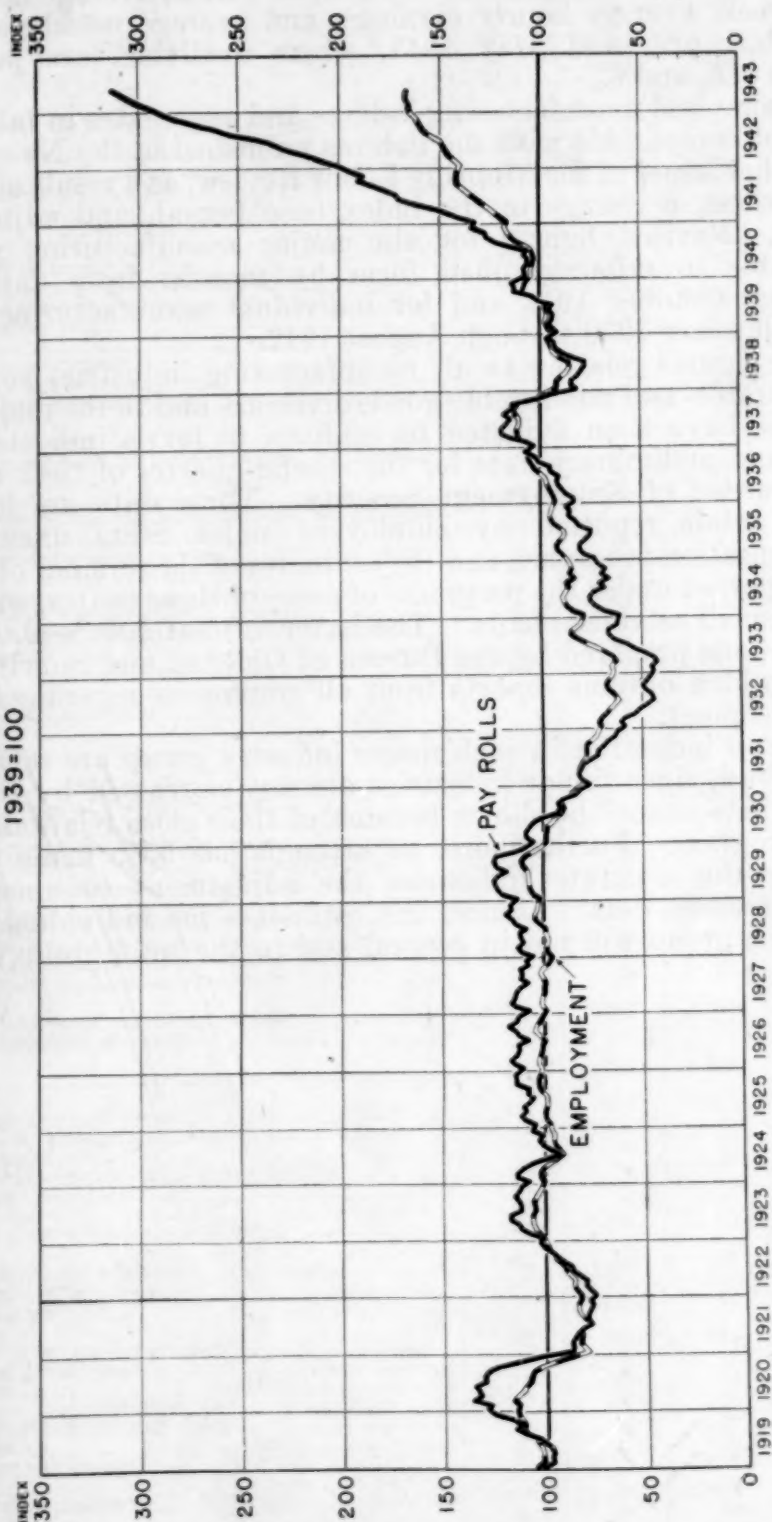
The general manufacturing indexes are computed from reports supplied by representative establishments in the 152 manufacturing industries surveyed. These reports cover more than 65 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and about 80 percent of the wage earners in the 152 industries covered.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and the amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings for individual industries shown in table 6 are computed by dividing the weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply information on man-hours, the average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings shown in that table are necessarily based on data furnished by a slightly smaller number of reporting firms. Because of variation in the size and composition of the reporting sample, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The average weekly hours and hourly earnings for the manufacturing groups are weighted arithmetic means of the averages for the individual industries, estimated employment being used as weights for weekly hours and estimated aggregate hours as weights for hourly earnings. The average weekly earnings for these groups are now computed by multiplying the average weekly hours by the corresponding average hourly earnings, and are not comparable with figures published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the *Monthly Labor Review*. Formerly, weekly earnings for the groups were computed by dividing total weekly pay roll by total employment, without any formal weighting of figures for the component industries.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY ROLLS ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES

1939=100



WAGE EARNERS AND WAGE EARNING PAY ROLL

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND EARNINGS

Employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for March, April, and May 1943, where available, are presented in tables 3, 5, and 6.

The revised manufacturing indexes and aggregates in tables 2 and 3 are not comparable with the indexes published in the November 1942 or earlier issues of the Monthly Labor Review, as a result of changes in definitions, a change in the index base period, and adjustments in levels. Revised figures for the major manufacturing groups are available in mimeographed form by months from January 1939 through October 1942 and for individual manufacturing industries from January 1939 through August 1942.

The figures relating to all manufacturing industries combined, to the durable- and nondurable-goods divisions, and to the major industry groups, have been adjusted to conform to levels indicated by final 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 released by the Bureau of Employment Security. These data are (a) employment totals reported by employers under State unemployment-compensation programs, and (b) estimates of the number of employees not reported under the programs of some of these States, which do not cover small establishments. The latter estimates were obtained from tabulations prepared by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, which obtains reports from all employers regardless of size of establishment.

Not all industries in each major industry group are represented in the tables, since minor industries are not canvassed by the Bureau, and others cannot be shown because of their close relationship to the war program. Furthermore, no attempt has been made to allocate among the separate industries the adjustment to unemployment compensation data. Hence, the estimates for individual industries within a group will not in general add to the total group estimate.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries ¹

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
All manufacturing.....	13,694	13,733	13,727	12,127
Durable goods.....	8,159	8,145	8,099	6,649
Nondurable goods.....	5,535	5,588	5,628	5,478
<i>Durable goods</i>				
Iron and steel and their products.....	1,718	1,729	1,726	1,579
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	522.4	522.8	523.2	547.9
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	82.2	83.2	84.4	86.9
Malleable-iron castings.....	26.9	27.2	27.3	29.6
Steel castings.....	84.1	85.5	84.5	72.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	16.8	18.0	17.8	21.8
Tin cans and other tinware.....	30.4	29.4	28.9	35.6
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	36.9	37.0	36.9	30.8
Wirework.....	32.3	32.5	32.8	31.2
Cutlery and edge tools.....	21.5	21.7	21.8	20.9
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	28.0	28.2	28.2	27.3
Hardware.....	44.6	44.5	44.3	45.1
Plumbers' supplies.....	23.5	23.6	23.6	24.7
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	53.1	52.6	53.2	47.2
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	59.4	59.4	59.1	48.2
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	88.9	87.5	85.7	75.1
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	69.4	70.2	70.3	59.3
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	12.2	12.1	11.9	10.9
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	28.7	28.6	28.6	24.6
Forgings, iron and steel.....	40.3	40.5	40.5	34.2
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted.....	25.5	25.3	24.6	15.0
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	49.1	49.1	49.3	44.0
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	7.3	6.9	6.6	7.9
Electrical machinery.....	695	695	693	523
Machinery, except electrical.....	1,243	1,237	1,233	1,058
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	490.8	487.3	483.0	409.1
Tractors.....	49.6	49.3	49.0	43.5
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	35.9	35.1	34.4	37.5
Textile machinery.....	28.2	28.0	28.6	21.0
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	76.2	75.6	74.5	63.8
Typewriters.....	12.1	12.3	11.9	14.9
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	34.6	34.0	33.5	27.8
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic.....	12.5	11.7	12.1	7.9
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	10.5	10.6	10.8	10.6
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	52.9	52.8	52.4	32.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	2,241	2,221	2,187	1,345
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	9.8	9.9	10.0	9.3
Automobiles.....	660	653	649	460
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	410	411	410	373
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	45.0	44.1	43.2	35.3
Clocks and watches.....	24.5	24.9	25.1	27.2
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	16.3	16.6	16.6	17.4
Silverware and plated ware.....	11.8	11.8	11.7	11.5
Lighting equipment.....	23.5	23.1	23.0	21.6
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified.....	29.4	29.9	28.9	27.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	479	480	479	551
Sawmills and logging camps.....	262.5	262.3	261.6	309.2
Planing and plywood mills.....	81.1	81.8	82.2	86.3
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	356	360	364	384
Mattresses and bedsprings.....	17.9	17.9	17.7	20.9
Furniture.....	166.9	168.2	170.5	177.2
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	29.5	30.2	30.7	31.9
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	11.7	12.2	12.4	12.0
Wood preserving.....	10.7	10.6	10.4	13.2
Wood, turned and shaped.....	21.7	22.1	22.2	24.8
Stone, clay and glass products.....	357	359	358	376
Glass and glassware.....	86.9	86.9	85.6	86.1
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	11.1	11.4	11.8	12.3
Cement.....	24.5	24.8	25.1	29.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	51.2	52.2	52.5	67.6
Pottery and related products.....	43.7	44.4	44.9	45.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>				
Stone, clay, and glass products—Continued.				
Gypsum.....	4.5	4.5	4.4	5.3
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	11.3	11.5	11.4	10.4
Lime.....	9.4	9.6	9.4	11.2
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	12.1	12.3	12.5	12.3
Abrasives.....	23.2	22.8	22.2	15.7
Asbestos products.....	22.1	22.0	22.2	22.2
<i>Nondurable goods</i>				
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	1,239	1,254	1,270	1,298
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	489.9	497.0	502.4	508.2
Cotton smallwares.....	17.2	17.2	17.1	17.6
Silk and rayon goods.....	96.0	96.8	98.1	105.4
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	169.8	171.0	174.4	182.9
Hosiery.....	117.6	119.6	121.7	128.5
Knitted cloth.....	11.9	11.7	12.1	12.4
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	32.4	32.6	32.6	32.2
Knitted underwear.....	42.6	43.2	43.8	45.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	68.7	69.5	71.3	70.3
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	23.4	23.8	24.0	21.9
Hats, fur-felt.....	10.2	10.3	10.2	9.6
Jute goods, except felts.....	4.0	4.0	4.1	3.9
Cordage and twine.....	17.4	17.3	17.2	17.1
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	863	889	903	934
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	233.7	239.9	241.8	256.3
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	60.9	62.5	63.1	70.0
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	12.8	12.9	13.1	14.2
Work shirts.....	18.2	18.4	18.6	18.4
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	240.9	248.7	253.3	263.1
Corsets and allied garments.....	16.5	16.9	17.0	18.9
Millinery.....	19.5	22.0	23.3	20.1
Handkerchiefs.....	3.6	3.7	3.9	4.6
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	17.7	18.3	18.4	16.8
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	13.9	14.3	15.2	13.4
Textile bags.....	14.7	15.6	16.0	14.2
Leather and leather products.....	337	346	354	381
Leather.....	46.9	47.4	48.7	51.3
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	17.6	18.1	18.7	18.5
Boots and shoes.....	187.3	192.9	197.3	217.9
Leather gloves and mittens.....	14.6	15.1	14.9	14.7
Trunks and suitcases.....	13.5	14.3	14.4	14.7
Food.....	914	910	921	906
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	164.0	155.8	166.7	164.9
Butter.....	22.9	21.6	20.6	22.2
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	13.5	12.9	12.2	14.1
Ice cream.....	15.5	14.3	13.3	17.5
Flour.....	27.6	28.0	28.3	24.1
Feeds, prepared.....	22.3	21.9	21.8	17.8
Cereal preparations.....	9.9	9.6	9.9	8.4
Baking.....	247.2	247.0	254.0	239.4
Sugar refining, cane.....	13.2	13.2	13.6	13.9
Sugar, beet.....	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.6
Confectionery.....	53.2	54.9	58.1	49.4
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	26.6	25.4	24.4	23.6
Malt liquors.....	44.6	43.6	42.6	42.3
Canning and preserving.....	91.7	89.9	80.0	95.0
Tobacco manufactures.....	89	92	93	91
Cigarettes.....	31.3	32.8	32.8	27.5
Cigars.....	43.9	45.2	46.2	49.9
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	8.0	8.2	8.4	7.6
Paper and allied products.....	312	312	313	320
Paper and pulp.....	149.0	149.0	149.6	163.4
Paper goods, other.....	48.2	48.4	49.3	46.4
Envelopes.....	10.4	10.4	10.4	10.2
Paper bags.....	12.1	12.2	12.3	13.7
Paper boxes.....	83.4	82.8	82.1	76.4

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
Nondurable goods—Continued				
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	329	330	334	328
Newspapers and periodicals.....	113.5	113.7	112.6	117.1
Printing, book and job.....	127.1	127.6	132.2	124.2
Lithographing.....	24.4	24.5	24.3	24.5
Bookbinding.....	29.0	29.0	29.0	27.6
Chemicals and allied products.....	737	744	734	588
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	28.9	28.8	28.9	31.3
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	44.2	43.8	43.5	36.5
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	11.0	11.1	11.1	10.4
Soap.....	13.1	13.4	13.6	14.2
Rayon and allied products.....	51.1	51.6	51.5	51.9
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	113.5	113.0	112.5	110.4
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	6.4	6.4	6.4	6.3
Cottonseed oil.....	14.1	16.4	17.8	11.1
Fertilizers.....	24.4	29.1	29.8	22.3
Products of petroleum and coal.....	124	123	122	126
Petroleum refining.....	79.9	79.0	78.1	79.2
Coke and byproducts.....	25.0	25.1	25.3	26.3
Paving materials.....	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.9
Roofing materials.....	9.4	9.1	9.5	10.2
Rubber products.....	186	186	186	141
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	83.3	83.0	82.8	58.9
Rubber boots and shoes.....	21.7	21.7	21.7	17.8
Rubber goods, other.....	72.1	72.2	72.4	58.4
Miscellaneous industries.....	405	402	398	365
Photographic apparatus.....	28.2	27.9	27.9	22.9
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	9.9	9.5	9.5	7.3
Games, toys, and dolls.....	15.6	15.3	15.0	22.7
Buttons.....	10.7	11.1	11.3	13.6

¹ Estimates for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Estimates for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data. For this reason, together with the fact that this Bureau has not prepared estimates for certain industries, and does not publish wage-earner data for war industries, the sum of the individual industry estimates will not agree with totals shown for the major industry groups.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; machine tools; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

³ Number of wage earners for February 1943 revised to 28.7.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average=100]

Industry ¹	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942
All manufacturing.....	167.2	167.6	167.6	148.0	313.4	309.6	304.5	228.7
Durable goods.....	225.9	225.6	224.3	184.1	437.0	430.4	421.0	300.0
Nondurable goods.....	120.8	122.0	122.9	119.6	192.5	191.5	190.7	159.0
<i>Durable goods</i>								
Iron and steel and their products.....	173.2	174.4	174.1	159.3	303.5	301.7	297.6	236.3
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	134.5	134.6	134.7	141.0	222.2	217.4	215.3	191.7
Gray-iron and semisteel castings.....	140.7	142.3	144.4	148.8	264.8	263.1	263.3	230.6
Malleable-iron castings.....	148.9	151.0	151.4	163.9	274.0	278.0	274.3	242.1
Steel castings.....	279.4	284.3	281.0	240.0	503.0	499.9	491.9	375.1
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	101.7	108.7	108.0	132.0	176.0	185.0	186.1	204.3
Tin cans and other tinware.....	95.7	92.7	90.9	112.1	150.1	143.2	138.3	140.1
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	168.1	168.3	167.8	140.1	254.9	258.5	259.1	190.7
Wirework.....	106.4	107.1	107.9	102.7	196.4	199.9	195.6	156.1
Cutlery and edge tools.....	139.4	141.0	141.7	135.8	267.6	277.9	272.8	217.1
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	182.9	184.3	184.0	178.3	337.2	339.5	336.9	288.7
Hardware.....	125.2	125.0	124.4	126.6	242.1	238.7	232.3	203.5
Plumbers' supplies.....	95.2	95.8	95.8	100.3	161.8	162.0	160.7	131.1
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified.....	115.1	113.9	115.4	102.3	194.1	188.7	189.8	135.8
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	196.0	195.9	195.0	158.9	358.9	359.5	340.6	262.4
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	160.0	157.5	154.3	135.2	299.0	292.5	278.2	202.5
Fabricated structural and ornamental metal-work.....	195.5	197.6	198.0	167.1	356.1	355.3	350.2	248.1
Metal doors, sash, frames, molding, and trim.....	157.9	155.7	153.5	140.7	277.3	263.9	258.1	197.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	200.4	200.0	199.7	171.8	370.4	358.7	355.4	268.6
Forgings, iron and steel.....	266.2	263.7	263.4	222.6	501.1	504.8	502.8	372.1
Wrought pipe, welded and heavy riveted.....	304.6	302.1	294.4	179.0	609.2	602.1	586.9	274.9
Screw-machine products and wood screws.....	290.2	289.9	291.6	260.0	553.2	544.4	545.0	424.3
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	120.6	114.4	107.9	130.7	222.2	214.7	197.5	196.0
Electrical machinery.....	268.3	268.4	267.4	201.7	458.9	454.7	453.7	310.0
Machinery, except electrical.....	235.2	234.1	233.3	200.2	427.2	422.3	417.7	325.8
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	242.6	240.9	238.7	202.2	434.2	429.3	421.5	321.4
Tractors.....	158.5	157.5	156.6	139.2	243.9	241.6	238.7	189.6
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	129.1	126.2	123.9	134.9	248.4	238.0	228.0	198.5
Textile machinery.....	128.5	127.7	130.5	141.3	225.2	228.9	230.2	218.7
Pumps and pumping equipment.....	314.6	311.8	307.4	263.2	645.3	632.8	614.2	496.9
Typewriters.....	74.4	75.6	73.5	92.0	144.7	145.3	139.9	131.7
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	175.6	172.8	170.0	141.2	338.1	327.7	317.6	238.2
Washing machines, wringers, and driers, domestic.....	167.4	156.6	162.6	105.2	202.6	267.1	267.5	157.8
Sewing machines, domestic and industrial.....	134.4	135.1	137.6	135.1	278.1	274.0	272.1	230.0
Refrigerators and refrigeration equipment.....	150.5	150.2	149.0	91.6	250.3	243.8	249.8	128.1
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	1412.0	1399.3	1378.1	847.1	2736.7	2692.9	2583.3	1481.3
Motorcycles, bicycles, and parts.....	139.9	141.7	143.1	132.8	255.0	252.8	254.0	202.7
Automobiles.....	164.0	162.3	161.4	114.3	297.1	286.7	283.9	183.2
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	178.8	179.2	178.8	162.9	322.0	318.5	312.1	245.9
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	162.9	159.7	156.3	127.9	271.7	267.7	252.0	174.7
Clocks and watches.....	120.7	122.6	123.7	134.0	233.9	235.7	237.7	221.4
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	113.2	114.8	115.0	120.5	170.6	174.2	171.7	155.7
Silverware and plated ware.....	96.9	97.1	96.8	94.9	167.1	166.6	159.7	130.1
Lighting equipment.....	114.7	112.6	112.3	105.6	204.6	198.2	191.7	154.3
Sheet-metal work, not elsewhere classified.....	157.0	159.2	154.0	149.0	285.9	277.5	274.2	216.5
Lumber and timber basic products.....	114.0	114.1	114.0	131.0	196.1	196.2	179.4	177.8
Sawmills and logging camps.....	91.2	91.1	90.8	107.4	160.4	151.4	143.5	147.9
Planing and plywood mills.....	111.7	112.6	113.2	118.8	175.5	169.9	171.4	152.1
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	108.6	109.8	111.0	117.2	178.7	177.8	175.2	162.7
Mattresses and bedsprings.....	97.6	97.7	96.4	113.7	152.9	147.8	143.8	142.2
Furniture.....	104.9	105.6	107.1	111.3	171.5	171.5	169.5	156.6
Wooden boxes, other than cigar.....	116.4	119.1	121.1	125.8	204.9	197.2	198.5	185.3
Caskets and other morticians' goods.....	94.1	98.1	99.5	96.7	144.8	152.7	143.2	123.4
Wood preserving.....	95.1	94.0	92.6	117.0	183.4	178.2	159.7	175.2
Wood, turned and shaped.....	98.6	100.7	101.0	112.9	163.7	162.0	162.0	153.6

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942
Durable goods—Continued								
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	121.5	122.3	122.0	128.2	187.7	185.3	181.9	168.9
Glass and glassware.....	124.5	124.4	122.5	123.4	182.8	180.6	175.6	160.7
Glass products made from purchased glass.....	110.8	114.3	117.8	122.8	160.5	160.0	163.8	149.6
Cement.....	102.8	104.0	105.6	123.0	145.3	141.4	137.4	152.3
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	90.3	91.9	92.5	119.1	137.9	137.6	136.0	153.9
Pottery and related products.....	131.9	134.1	135.7	136.0	191.2	192.6	189.4	174.1
Gypsum.....	91.9	90.4	88.8	107.4	154.6	147.2	139.8	143.8
Wallboard, plaster (except gypsum), and mineral wool.....	139.6	141.5	140.6	128.8	231.3	225.8	221.7	167.5
Lime.....	99.9	101.8	99.2	118.6	173.4	179.2	166.5	169.8
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	65.5	66.3	67.2	66.3	92.1	88.2	84.0	73.3
Abrasives.....	300.5	294.2	286.9	203.5	474.5	461.6	459.0	312.3
Asbestos products.....	138.8	138.7	139.8	139.5	257.0	253.6	252.0	211.7
Nondurable goods								
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	108.3	109.6	111.1	113.5	180.7	181.2	182.4	160.6
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	123.7	125.5	126.9	128.3	216.0	217.1	217.4	196.1
Cotton smallwares.....	128.9	128.8	128.1	132.0	223.3	223.6	219.9	201.6
Silk and rayon goods.....	80.1	80.8	81.8	87.9	134.2	133.9	133.5	127.8
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	113.8	114.6	116.9	122.6	205.0	205.4	208.3	184.0
Hosiery.....	73.9	75.2	76.5	80.8	108.2	108.3	110.7	93.7
Knitted cloth.....	108.8	106.9	111.2	113.8	173.8	168.0	173.2	152.7
Knitted outerwear and knitted gloves.....	115.3	115.9	115.8	114.3	203.4	198.0	194.4	152.4
Knitted underwear.....	110.6	112.1	113.8	118.4	184.1	184.9	184.2	165.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	102.8	104.0	106.7	105.1	158.8	161.7	165.2	136.8
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	91.3	93.2	93.9	85.5	146.9	147.3	150.1	117.4
Hats, fur-felt.....	70.3	70.6	70.2	66.0	118.9	120.9	119.0	81.0
Jute goods, except felts.....	111.9	111.8	113.6	110.1	199.1	193.2	195.7	161.4
Cordage and twine.....	143.5	142.9	141.8	141.0	237.9	234.4	231.5	210.7
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	109.3	112.6	114.4	118.3	164.3	174.8	177.5	150.9
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	106.9	109.7	110.6	117.2	162.8	169.7	168.5	156.6
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	86.4	88.7	89.6	99.4	136.0	138.7	136.1	142.4
Underwear and neckwear, men's.....	79.4	79.9	81.0	87.9	137.9	136.2	135.4	120.0
Work shirts.....	135.4	137.1	138.3	137.1	233.0	236.8	231.8	208.0
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	88.7	91.6	93.2	96.9	131.0	143.8	148.0	118.2
Corsets and allied garments.....	88.2	89.8	90.4	100.9	137.3	137.1	137.0	129.4
Millinery.....	80.2	90.7	95.8	82.8	96.7	122.8	144.0	71.0
Handkerchiefs.....	75.0	77.1	79.8	94.2	119.1	122.1	123.1	129.5
Curtains, draperies, and bedspreads.....	104.9	108.5	108.7	99.6	168.0	167.8	170.0	135.6
Housefurnishings, other than curtains, etc.....	130.6	134.5	143.3	126.2	219.6	228.4	231.1	161.9
Textile bags.....	122.6	129.9	133.3	118.1	182.6	194.1	191.8	143.9
Leather and leather products.....	97.0	99.8	101.9	109.8	153.0	155.9	158.1	151.7
Leather.....	99.2	100.4	103.0	108.6	150.3	151.4	152.1	145.5
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings.....	93.2	96.2	99.4	98.0	138.2	140.9	146.3	129.9
Boots and shoes.....	85.9	88.5	90.5	99.9	137.3	141.0	143.7	141.2
Leather gloves and mittens.....	146.0	151.1	149.2	146.7	222.4	228.2	226.9	194.1
Trunks and suitcases.....	162.5	171.7	173.2	177.1	256.1	248.2	242.4	210.8
Food.....	106.9	106.5	107.7	106.0	158.5	150.3	151.3	131.5
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	127.8	129.3	138.4	136.9	190.5	170.4	180.4	158.3
Butter.....	127.3	120.5	114.5	123.9	174.3	163.2	153.1	147.4
Condensed and evaporated milk.....	139.1	132.9	125.8	145.7	202.7	188.9	173.8	188.4
Ice cream.....	98.9	91.1	84.9	111.2	127.1	117.7	109.4	124.6
Flour.....	111.2	112.9	114.3	97.4	163.0	165.1	172.2	116.1
Feeds, prepared.....	144.8	142.4	141.7	115.3	235.7	227.3	216.6	152.0
Cereal preparations.....	132.2	129.2	132.4	112.0	218.1	214.5	212.6	144.9
Baking.....	107.1	107.1	110.1	103.8	147.8	143.4	145.8	123.6
Sugar refining, cane.....	92.9	92.9	95.9	98.4	124.6	119.5	130.0	111.8
Sugar, beet.....	40.0	39.7	38.2	44.5	58.3	59.2	57.2	62.0
Confectionery.....	106.9	110.3	116.9	99.4	158.0	161.4	166.8	120.9
Beverages, nonalcoholic.....	124.9	119.4	114.7	110.9	148.9	140.4	131.3	125.5
Malt liquors.....	123.6	120.9	117.9	117.2	165.3	155.9	147.2	144.5
Canning and preserving.....	68.2	66.9	59.5	70.6	117.0	114.1	98.9	94.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Wage-Earner Employment and of Wage-Earner Pay Roll in Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Industry ²	Wage-earner employment				Wage-earner pay roll			
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1942
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>								
Tobacco manufactures.....	95.1	98.6	99.9	97.2	144.3	146.5	143.3	124.6
Cigarettes ³	114.1	119.8	119.5	100.2	155.3	156.7	148.8	129.0
Cigars.....	86.2	88.7	90.7	98.0	141.0	144.3	143.0	125.3
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	87.0	89.3	91.4	83.0	121.7	124.1	127.5	107.0
Paper and allied products.....	117.7	117.7	118.0	120.5	178.0	175.5	173.1	152.7
Paper and pulp.....	108.4	108.4	108.9	118.9	170.3	167.2	165.6	154.8
Paper goods, other.....	128.0	128.6	131.1	123.3	181.4	182.0	179.4	147.5
Envelopes.....	119.4	119.4	119.4	117.3	169.5	167.6	162.1	134.2
Paper bags.....	109.3	110.3	110.8	123.4	166.9	165.6	164.4	163.5
Paper boxes.....	120.6	119.7	118.8	110.5	178.5	175.6	171.8	134.5
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	100.4	100.6	101.8	100.0	123.1	121.8	122.3	111.0
Newspapers and periodicals.....	95.7	95.8	94.9	98.6	110.7	109.8	108.2	106.6
Printing, book and job.....	100.6	101.0	104.6	98.3	126.1	123.9	127.7	109.5
Lithographing.....	93.7	94.3	93.6	94.1	117.9	119.7	117.8	104.9
Bookbinding.....	112.6	112.4	112.6	107.2	172.2	169.2	167.6	139.3
Chemicals and allied products.....	255.8	258.3	254.8	204.1	424.2	422.0	409.7	295.6
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	102.8	102.4	102.7	111.3	154.9	147.1	141.4	139.5
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	161.4	159.9	158.8	133.0	227.8	225.2	220.4	161.3
Perfumes and cosmetics.....	105.8	106.9	107.2	100.5	141.9	141.3	138.6	118.2
Soap.....	96.6	99.1	99.9	104.7	138.2	140.1	142.1	130.4
Rayon and allied products.....	105.8	106.8	106.8	107.5	160.3	157.3	154.1	140.8
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	163.2	162.4	161.7	158.8	262.3	258.6	255.4	217.5
Compressed and liquefied gases.....	160.4	160.7	162.4	158.2	265.7	262.9	258.0	222.8
Cottonseed oil.....	93.1	108.0	116.9	72.9	151.2	176.7	180.9	89.3
Fertilizers.....	129.8	154.8	158.6	118.8	243.8	291.8	265.3	176.1
Products of petroleum and coal.....	117.3	116.0	115.6	118.7	182.3	173.9	166.8	147.1
Petroleum refining.....	109.7	108.4	107.2	108.7	170.5	162.8	154.2	132.7
Coke and byproducts.....	115.2	115.7	116.7	121.3	177.7	169.2	169.0	153.8
Paving materials.....	66.2	55.3	53.3	79.5	107.0	94.3	81.6	113.7
Roofing materials.....	117.1	113.1	118.1	126.3	184.5	181.0	175.1	175.2
Rubber products.....	153.9	153.8	153.8	116.9	250.9	248.1	246.2	157.6
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	153.9	153.3	153.0	108.9	243.9	240.2	239.7	143.3
Rubber boots and shoes.....	146.5	146.5	146.3	120.1	247.9	243.8	239.2	169.7
Rubber goods, other.....	139.2	139.5	139.9	112.8	228.7	228.0	224.9	157.7
Miscellaneous industries.....	165.6	164.5	162.8	149.0	295.1	289.3	283.3	213.2
Photographic apparatus.....	163.1	161.8	161.7	132.9	256.6	252.1	250.3	186.0
Pianos, organs, and parts.....	130.5	124.8	125.3	96.3	261.8	235.8	229.0	126.5
Games, toys, and dolls.....	83.7	81.8	80.5	121.5	148.6	140.5	139.7	161.4
Buttons.....	97.6	101.0	103.1	123.6	171.5	173.5	172.3	178.3

¹ Indexes for the major industry groups have been adjusted to final data for 1941 and preliminary data for the second quarter of 1942 made available by the Bureau of Employment Security of the Federal Security Agency, and are not comparable with data in issues of the Monthly Labor Review prior to March 1943. Comparable series for earlier months are available upon request. Indexes for individual industries have been adjusted to levels indicated by the 1939 Census of Manufactures, but not to Federal Security Agency data.

² Unpublished information concerning the following war industries may be obtained by authorized agencies upon request: Aircraft engines; aircraft and parts, excluding engines; alloying; aluminum manufactures; ammunition; cars, electric- and steam-railroad; communication equipment; electrical equipment; engines and turbines; explosives and safety fuses; fire extinguishers; firearms; fireworks; locomotives; machine-tool accessories; machine tools; optical instruments and ophthalmic goods; professional and scientific instruments and fire control equipment; radios and phonographs; and shipbuilding.

³ Revisions have been made in the data for the following industries as indicated:

Textile machinery—September 1942 pay-roll index to 221.1; February 1943 employment index to 131.1.

Cigarettes—February 1943 pay-roll index to 145.7.

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

393

TABLE 4.—Estimated Number of Wage Earners in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries

Industry	Estimated number of wage earners (in thousands)			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
Anthracite mining.....	72.3	73.5	74.0	79.2
Bituminous-coal mining.....	383	394	404	438
Metal mining.....	97.8	99.3	100	111
Iron.....	33.4	33.1	32.0	31.4
Copper.....	31.4	32.0	33.0	32.5
Lead and zinc.....	18.9	19.2	19.5	19.7
Gold and silver.....	7.5	8.1	8.4	20.9
Miscellaneous metal mining.....	6.6	6.9	7.1	6.4
Hotels ¹	341	339	338	337
Power laundries.....	267	267	265	268
Dyeing and cleaning.....	85.2	84.4	78.4	85.5
Class I steam railroads ²	1,349	1,345	1,324	1,270

¹ Data include salaried personnel.

² Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Nonmanufacturing Industries¹

[1939 average=100]

Industry	Employment indexes				Pay-roll indexes			
	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942	May 1943	April 1943	March 1943	May 1942
Coal mining:								
Anthracite.....	87.3	88.8	89.4	95.7	126.4	149.5	152.7	131.6
Bituminous.....	103.4	106.2	109.1	118.3	176.4	189.9	202.1	175.2
Metal mining.....	110.9	112.6	113.4	125.7	170.2	167.5	165.5	168.8
Iron.....	166.2	164.7	159.1	156.1	261.5	247.7	228.5	229.9
Copper.....	131.9	134.7	138.6	136.7	213.2	210.3	214.4	186.9
Lead and zinc.....	121.7	124.0	126.0	127.1	202.6	206.7	207.6	193.0
Gold and silver.....	30.1	32.6	33.9	84.2	38.4	39.7	41.5	90.9
Miscellaneous.....	166.1	171.2	178.2	159.4	263.6	268.5	274.9	215.2
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	98.2	98.2	96.3	116.7	166.3	162.8	150.2	163.8
Crude-petroleum production ²	81.6	82.1	82.3	88.3	111.5	109.6	107.0	101.7
Public utilities:								
Telephone and telegraph.....	123.2	122.8	122.0	121.1	143.2	139.4	136.7	130.7
Electric light and power.....	85.7	86.6	87.4	98.8	106.4	106.4	105.8	113.1
Street railways and busses.....	117.5	117.1	115.5	105.6	153.8	152.0	150.7	124.9
Wholesale trade.....	95.1	96.5	97.3	102.3	124.3	125.1	124.0	119.8
Retail trade.....	98.5	100.8	98.3	103.7	117.7	119.0	115.7	114.9
Food.....	105.3	106.3	106.1	112.3	128.1	126.4	125.3	124.7
General merchandising.....	112.7	116.4	111.0	110.0	128.7	133.0	128.0	120.9
Apparel.....	110.7	120.6	108.0	108.9	129.2	139.8	127.1	119.2
Furniture and housefurnishings.....	68.1	68.6	69.1	86.5	86.2	85.8	83.7	101.8
Automotive.....	62.5	62.0	61.4	71.3	84.1	82.9	79.7	82.9
Lumber and building materials.....	91.3	91.2	89.1	101.7	119.8	118.0	112.4	121.4
Hotels (year-round) ³	105.6	105.1	104.9	104.5	134.8	132.1	130.4	117.5
Power laundries.....	118.4	118.4	117.4	118.7	153.8	150.7	145.2	137.0
Dyeing and cleaning.....	126.2	125.1	116.1	126.6	178.1	176.2	150.3	154.3
Class I steam railroads ⁴	136.6	136.1	134.0	128.6	(5)	(5)	(5)	(5)
Water transportation ⁵	131.8	124.9	117.0	90.1	307.7	288.0	271.9	172.5

¹ Mimeographed report showing revised data (1939=100) January 1939–November 1942 for each industry available on request.

² Does not include well drilling or rig building.

³ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, tips not included. Data include salaried personnel.

⁴ Source: Interstate Commerce Commission. Data include salaried personnel.

⁵ Not available.

⁶ Based on estimates prepared by the U. S. Maritime Commission covering employment on steam and motor merchant vessels of 1,000 gross tons or over in deep-sea trade only.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Specified Months
MANUFACTURING

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943
All manufacturing.....	\$43.08	\$42.48	\$41.75	45.2	45.0	44.7	Cents 95.3	Cents 94.4	Cents 93.4
Durable goods.....	49.35	48.63	47.79	47.0	46.8	46.4	105.0	103.9	103.0
Nondurable goods.....	33.99	33.50	33.08	42.7	42.4	42.3	79.6	79.0	78.2
<i>Durable goods</i>									
Iron and steel and their products.....	47.76	46.98	46.47	46.5	46.1	46.1	102.7	101.9	100.8
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	49.12	47.95	47.24	44.1	43.5	43.2	112.0	111.0	109.9
Steel castings.....	50.00	48.84	48.49	47.6	47.1	47.0	104.8	103.7	103.2
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	37.13	36.52	36.85	43.4	43.9	44.7	84.5	83.0	82.4
Tin cans and other tinware.....	36.74	35.96	35.43	44.6	44.1	43.8	82.3	81.7	81.2
Wirework.....	46.35	46.49	45.14	47.8	48.1	47.9	95.9	95.6	93.7
Cutlery and edge tools.....	40.36	41.46	40.54	46.2	47.3	46.9	87.6	87.7	86.4
Tools (except edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	44.26	44.20	44.11	48.1	48.7	48.6	91.9	90.9	91.0
Hardware.....	42.65	42.01	40.81	48.1	48.2	47.9	88.7	87.2	85.2
Plumbers' supplies.....	43.87	43.49	43.20	47.5	47.2	47.0	92.4	92.2	91.8
Stoves, oil burners, and heating equipment, not elsewhere classified ²	42.11	41.74	41.62	46.2	46.2	46.3	91.2	90.4	90.0
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	47.14	47.17	44.94	48.5	48.6	47.7	97.4	97.2	94.3
Stamped and enameled ware and galvanizing.....	44.48	44.21	42.92	47.0	47.1	46.6	94.6	93.4	91.7
Fabricated structural and ornamental metalwork.....	51.43	50.32	49.45	49.4	48.9	48.4	103.3	103.0	102.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets ²	46.62	45.22	45.15	47.5	46.7	46.7	99.4	98.0	97.3
Forgings, iron and steel ²	56.87	57.08	56.93	48.6	48.9	49.0	117.1	116.5	116.1
Firearms.....	56.45	57.36	57.07	48.4	48.4	48.3	116.5	118.6	118.1
Electrical machinery.....	45.60	45.12	44.93	47.3	47.0	47.1	96.4	96.0	95.4
Electrical equipment.....	47.99	47.55	47.77	47.8	47.4	47.6	100.5	100.1	99.5
Radios and phonographs.....	39.42	39.03	38.02	46.3	46.1	45.8	85.1	84.6	84.3
Communications equipment.....	41.43	41.05	40.48	46.4	46.1	46.3	89.3	89.0	87.5
Machinery, except electrical.....	52.54	52.14	51.59	49.8	49.8	49.7	105.5	104.7	103.8
Machinery and machine-shop products.....	51.34	51.01	50.37	49.5	49.7	49.5	103.7	103.0	102.1
Engines and turbines.....	58.52	57.32	56.83	50.9	50.3	50.1	115.8	114.3	114.0
Agricultural machinery, excluding tractors.....	50.90	49.83	49.01	48.6	47.7	46.9	104.8	104.5	103.9
Tractors.....	51.93	51.40	51.10	47.2	47.0	47.0	110.1	109.6	108.8
Machine tools.....	54.76	54.69	54.10	51.8	52.0	52.0	105.7	105.1	104.0
Textile machinery ²	45.71	46.86	45.80	50.3	51.3	50.8	90.9	91.4	90.4
Typewriters.....	46.78	46.26	45.75	49.4	49.8	50.5	94.7	92.9	90.5
Cash registers, adding and calculating machines.....	58.41	57.64	56.81	50.1	49.7	49.3	117.5	117.0	116.2
Transportation equipment, except automobiles.....	56.29	55.88	54.48	47.5	47.6	46.8	118.5	117.4	116.4
Locomotives.....	59.34	56.85	58.36	48.0	47.2	48.1	123.5	120.5	121.4
Cars, electric and steam-railroad.....	50.99	48.54	46.78	45.6	44.4	43.7	111.5	108.9	106.8
Aircraft and parts, excluding aircraft engines.....	49.67	49.09	47.29	46.8	47.3	46.2	106.3	105.2	102.5
Aircraft engines.....	61.27	60.02	60.82	48.7	48.3	48.8	125.2	124.3	124.7
Shipbuilding and boatbuilding.....	60.04	59.50	58.46	47.8	47.7	48.9	125.5	124.6	124.6
Automobiles.....	57.00	55.77	55.62	46.3	45.9	45.7	123.1	121.5	121.7
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	47.77	46.91	46.13	47.2	47.0	46.6	101.2	99.8	99.0
Smelting and refining, primary, of nonferrous metals.....	45.51	44.42	43.18	44.7	44.2	43.5	102.9	100.7	99.3
Alloying and rolling and drawing of nonferrous metals, except aluminum.....	52.12	51.78	50.82	48.1	48.0	47.5	109.2	108.5	107.0
Clocks and watches.....	39.96	39.62	39.67	46.3	46.1	46.6	86.6	86.1	85.3
Jewelry (precious metals) and jewelers' findings.....	38.96	39.21	38.59	45.5	45.9	45.8	84.3	84.4	83.5
Silverware and plated ware.....	45.09	44.80	43.04	46.8	47.2	46.3	96.4	95.1	93.1
Lighting equipment.....	46.06	45.53	44.42	46.0	46.1	45.5	100.6	99.4	97.7
Aluminum manufactures.....	49.74	48.44	47.83	47.6	47.2	46.5	104.7	102.6	102.9
Lumber and timber basic products.....	32.24	30.82	29.68	43.8	43.1	42.4	73.6	71.5	70.0
Sawmills and logging camps.....	31.51	29.75	28.31	43.4	42.5	41.6	72.5	69.9	68.1
Planing and plywood mills ²	34.44	33.05	33.47	45.1	43.9	44.5	77.1	75.5	75.3
Furniture and finished lumber products.....	32.66	32.06	31.39	44.5	44.4	43.9	73.4	72.2	71.5
Furniture.....	33.14	32.86	32.22	44.3	44.6	44.1	75.2	74.0	73.3

See footnotes at end of table.

Trend of Employment and Unemployment

395

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Specified Months—Continued
MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943
<i>Durable goods—Continued</i>									
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	\$36.21	\$35.57	\$34.86	42.9	42.7	42.1	Cents 84.4	Cents 83.3	Cents 82.8
Glass and glassware.....	37.04	36.54	35.92	41.5	41.4	40.8	89.3	88.3	88.1
Cement.....	37.81	36.19	34.81	42.7	41.6	40.7	88.2	87.1	85.5
Brick, tile, and terra cotta ²	30.99	30.17	29.89	40.6	40.4	39.9	75.6	74.7	74.6
Pottery and related products.....	33.27	32.74	31.80	40.9	40.8	40.5	81.5	80.4	79.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	37.08	35.19	33.26	43.1	42.4	39.8	84.5	81.8	82.1
Asbestos products.....	44.25	43.93	43.57	48.2	48.2	48.1	92.9	91.7	90.6
<i>Nondurable goods</i>									
Textile-mill products and other fiber manufactures.....	27.76	27.52	27.36	41.8	41.7	41.6	66.4	66.0	65.7
Cotton manufactures, except smallwares.....	24.78	24.54	24.36	41.9	41.8	41.6	59.1	58.8	58.6
Cotton smallwares.....	32.24	32.28	32.03	44.2	44.8	44.5	72.9	72.2	72.0
Silk and rayon goods.....	27.12	26.75	26.26	42.1	41.9	41.7	64.0	63.5	63.0
Woolen and worsted manufactures, except dyeing and finishing.....	33.56	33.39	33.15	41.7	41.7	41.5	80.4	80.1	79.9
Hosiery ²	26.77	26.45	26.68	38.9	38.8	39.3	68.9	68.4	68.1
Knitted cloth.....	31.73	31.21	30.93	43.6	43.3	43.2	72.5	71.7	71.0
Knitted underwear and knitted gloves.....	29.07	28.16	27.66	41.2	40.5	40.2	68.5	67.3	66.6
Knitted underwear.....	24.74	24.48	23.91	41.8	41.5	41.2	58.6	58.6	57.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles, including woolen and worsted.....	32.03	32.19	32.08	44.4	44.5	44.7	72.0	72.2	71.7
Carpets and rugs, wool.....	36.89	36.36	36.68	43.2	43.1	43.5	85.6	84.6	84.6
Hats, fur-felt.....	38.86	39.47	38.90	41.6	42.0	42.2	93.5	93.3	92.5
Apparel and other finished textile products.....	26.37	27.22	27.16	38.1	38.7	38.8	69.2	70.3	70.0
Men's clothing, not elsewhere classified.....	29.09	29.58	29.03	37.9	38.5	38.1	75.9	75.7	75.4
Shirts, collars, and nightwear.....	21.63	21.58	20.94	37.4	37.5	37.1	57.6	57.5	56.2
Underwear and neckwear, men's ²	23.60	23.28	22.77	37.9	37.7	38.0	62.2	61.8	60.0
Work shirts.....	19.02	19.09	18.55	38.4	39.1	38.8	48.1	47.7	46.7
Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified ²	31.40	33.31	33.65	38.1	39.0	39.5	80.7	83.7	83.4
Corsets and allied garments ²	27.08	26.60	26.46	41.6	41.6	41.3	65.3	64.1	64.2
Millinery.....	29.31	32.94	36.57	31.6	34.4	37.2	80.9	84.2	85.4
Leather and leather products.....	30.03	29.69	29.49	40.2	40.2	40.4	74.7	73.9	72.9
Leather.....	37.41	37.24	36.46	42.9	42.8	42.5	87.5	87.3	86.0
Boots and shoes.....	28.24	28.15	28.07	39.3	39.5	39.8	71.7	70.9	70.2
Food.....	35.63	34.12	33.72	44.7	43.3	43.4	79.7	78.8	77.7
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	41.09	36.40	36.04	47.3	43.0	43.0	87.1	84.8	83.6
Butter.....	30.18	29.85	29.63	46.6	46.5	46.5	65.0	64.3	63.7
Ice cream.....	35.11	35.56	35.41	46.3	46.8	46.5	73.4	73.0	73.0
Flour.....	36.94	37.07	38.41	47.7	47.3	48.6	78.2	78.4	79.2
Baking.....	35.40	34.42	34.20	44.7	43.8	44.2	79.3	78.7	77.5
Sugar refining, cane.....	32.08	30.78	32.42	40.1	39.3	40.9	80.0	78.2	79.2
Sugar, beet.....	36.17	37.20	37.29	38.0	39.6	39.4	95.2	93.9	94.7
Confectionery.....	27.34	27.04	26.37	41.4	41.7	41.7	66.6	65.2	63.8
Beverages, nonalcoholic ²	31.84	31.34	30.39	43.3	43.2	41.9	73.6	72.6	71.8
Malt liquors.....	46.70	45.34	43.81	44.7	43.4	42.7	105.1	104.4	102.4
Canning and preserving.....	27.45	27.23	26.42	39.9	39.3	39.3	69.7	70.6	68.1
Tobacco manufactures.....	25.60	25.11	24.21	40.7	40.5	39.5	62.9	62.0	61.3
Cigarettes ²	28.88	27.77	26.44	41.4	40.5	38.6	69.8	68.6	68.5
Cigars.....	23.49	23.35	22.66	40.5	40.8	40.1	57.9	57.1	56.2
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	24.64	24.60	24.50	39.2	39.1	39.4	62.9	62.9	62.2
Paper and allied products.....	36.21	35.79	35.11	45.6	45.3	44.9	79.4	79.0	78.2
Paper and pulp.....	39.58	38.87	38.41	46.8	46.2	45.8	84.5	84.2	83.9
Paper boxes.....	32.49	32.28	31.67	44.6	44.5	44.3	73.1	72.8	71.8
Printing, publishing, and allied industries.....	39.78	39.20	39.08	39.7	39.6	39.8	100.2	99.0	98.2
Newspapers and periodicals.....	44.29	43.79	43.52	36.4	36.4	36.6	118.6	117.4	116.3
Printing, book and job ²	37.63	36.51	36.71	41.3	41.0	41.0	91.2	89.8	89.6
Chemicals and allied products.....	41.36	40.86	40.14	45.5	45.4	45.0	90.9	90.0	89.2
Paints, varnishes, and colors.....	43.50	41.63	39.61	47.0	45.7	44.0	92.8	91.3	90.2
Drugs, medicines, and insecticides.....	33.63	33.58	33.04	44.0	44.0	43.9	76.3	76.8	75.6
Soap.....	40.81	40.34	40.58	43.8	43.5	43.9	93.2	92.7	92.5
Rayon and allied products.....	36.78	35.73	35.01	41.9	41.4	41.3	87.7	86.3	84.8
Chemicals, not elsewhere classified.....	48.35	47.52	47.15	45.5	45.2	45.0	105.1	105.1	104.7
Explosives and safety fuses.....	47.74	47.44	46.94	47.2	47.1	46.6	101.1	100.8	100.6
Ammunition, small-arms.....	42.07	42.07	41.94	46.5	46.5	46.4	90.4	90.5	90.3
Fireworks.....	34.50	33.49	33.10	43.1	43.4	42.9	80.0	77.3	77.1
Cottonseed oil.....	22.00	22.08	20.87	47.1	47.9	47.7	46.4	45.9	43.7
Fertilizers.....	26.61	26.23	23.64	44.0	44.8	42.9	60.5	58.6	55.2

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 6.—Hours and Earnings in Specified Months—Continued
MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Average weekly earnings ¹			Average weekly hours ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943	May 1943	Apr. 1943	Mar. 1943
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>									
Products of petroleum and coal.....	\$49.93	\$48.33	\$46.48	44.5	43.5	42.6	Cents 112.2	Cents 111.1	Cents 109.1
Petroleum refining.....	53.42	51.58	49.36	44.6	43.5	42.6	119.6	118.3	116.1
Rubber products.....	45.63	45.01	44.74	45.4	45.1	45.1	100.5	99.8	99.2
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	53.15	52.54	52.68	45.6	45.2	45.5	116.7	116.2	115.9
Rubber boots and shoes.....	38.25	37.59	36.96	45.4	45.1	44.6	84.1	83.3	82.9
Rubber goods, other.....	38.88	38.77	38.01	45.1	45.1	44.9	86.4	85.8	84.8
Miscellaneous industries.....	40.65	40.18	39.84	46.4	46.4	46.6	87.6	86.6	85.5
Professional and scientific instruments and fire-control equipment ²	51.44	50.74	50.59	51.1	51.3	51.6	100.6	99.0	98.2

NONMANUFACTURING

							Cents	Cents	Cents
Coal mining:									
Anthracite.....	\$37.39	\$43.22	\$43.84	36.1	41.2	41.3	103.0	105.4	106.0
Bituminous.....	39.51	41.39	43.13	35.6	36.9	38.6	111.9	112.8	111.9
Metal mining.....	43.43	42.57	41.61	44.3	43.9	43.7	98.4	96.2	94.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	36.12	35.62	33.21	46.3	46.0	43.8	78.1	77.6	76.6
Crude-petroleum production.....	46.28	45.27	44.12	41.0	41.2	40.8	109.7	106.9	106.8
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph ³	35.53	34.99	34.56	42.1	41.3	41.1	85.5	85.0	84.5
Electric light and power.....	42.98	42.17	41.93	40.8	40.8	40.8	105.1	103.4	102.3
Street railways and busses ⁴	43.52	43.14	43.14	49.0	48.9	49.4	87.0	87.0	85.7
Wholesale trade.....	38.86	38.41	37.90	41.7	41.8	41.7	93.4	92.3	90.9
Retail trade.....	24.42	24.23	24.55	40.9	40.7	41.1	66.3	65.7	65.0
Food.....	30.13	29.42	28.37	42.0	41.9	41.2	67.6	66.7	65.5
General merchandising.....	20.12	20.39	20.58	36.6	36.8	37.2	54.6	54.3	54.3
Apparel.....	25.19	25.01	25.61	36.9	36.5	37.1	68.4	68.3	67.6
Furniture and housefurnishings.....	34.63	34.31	33.21	44.1	44.1	43.7	80.9	79.5	78.1
Automotive.....	36.78	36.52	35.46	47.5	47.5	47.6	77.5	77.0	75.3
Lumber and building materials.....	34.09	33.40	32.64	43.3	43.3	42.5	81.2	80.4	79.4
Hotels (year-round) ⁵	19.75	19.46	19.35	44.4	44.6	44.7	44.8	44.0	43.1
Laundries.....	23.87	23.48	22.70	44.4	44.4	43.8	54.5	53.6	52.3
Dyeing and cleaning ⁶	28.93	28.87	26.56	45.0	45.7	43.5	64.9	64.1	61.9
Brokerage ⁷	50.89	51.74	49.90	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Insurance ⁸	41.35	40.26	40.37	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
Building construction.....	47.46	47.00	46.49	38.1	38.1	37.4	124.0	123.5	124.2

¹ These figures are based on reports from cooperating establishments covering both full- and part-time employees who worked during any part of one pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month. As not all reporting firms furnished man-hour data, average hours and average hourly earnings are based on a smaller sample than are weekly earnings. Data for the current and immediately preceding months are subject to revision.

² Revisions in the data for the following industries have been made as indicated:

Stoves—October 1942 through February 1943, average weekly earnings to \$39.34, \$38.85, \$39.96, \$40.45, and \$40.91.

Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets—November 1942 average weekly earnings and average weekly hours to \$42.25 and 45.7 hours.

Forgings, iron and steel—January 1943 average weekly earnings and average hourly earnings to \$56.06 and 114.4 cents, February 1943 average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings to \$57.02, 49.0 hours, and 116.5 cents.

Textile machinery—May 1942 through January 1943, average weekly earnings to \$40.49, \$40.78, \$40.85, \$41.66, \$43.22, \$44.42, \$43.03, \$45.04, and \$44.85; average weekly hours to 49.4, 49.3, 49.3, 49.5, 49.8, 50.7, 49.0, 50.7, and 50.3; average hourly earnings to 81.7, 82.8, 82.9, 84.2, 86.8, 87.7, 87.9, 89.0, and 89.4 cents.

Planing and plywood mills—January and February 1943 average weekly earnings to \$32.07 and \$32.24, respectively; average weekly hours to 43.1 and 43.5.

Brick, tile, and terra cotta—January and February 1943 average weekly earnings to \$28.17 and \$29.35, respectively; average weekly hours to 38.4 and 39.1.

Hosiery—January 1943 average weekly earnings and average hourly earnings to \$25.28 and 66.4 cents, respectively; February 1943 average hourly earnings to 66.7 cents.

Women's clothing, not elsewhere classified—Average weekly earnings; May, June, July (1942), January and February (1943) to \$24.68, \$22.35, \$24.14, \$28.75, and \$31.10, respectively; average weekly hours, October, November, and December 1942 to 36.7, 36.4, and 37.0; average hourly earnings, May 1942 through February 1943 to 64.0, 61.5, 65.2, 70.7, 72.4, 74.7, 73.4, 73.3, 75.8, and 79.8 cents. Hourly earnings for August 1942 and later months not comparable with averages for July 1942 and prior months. Strictly comparable July hourly earnings, 69.0 cents.

Corsets and allied garments—December 1942 average weekly hours to 40.6.

Beverages, nonalcoholic—July 1942 through February 1943 average weekly earnings to \$30.57, \$30.40, \$29.87, \$30.12, \$29.54, \$29.80, \$29.53, and \$29.96; January and February 1943 average hourly earnings to 71.2 cents and 71.8 cents.

Civilian Labor Force, June 1943

A SEASONAL increase of 1,600,000 over the May level brought the civilian labor force to a total of 54,600,000 in June 1943, according to the Bureau of the Census Monthly Report on the Labor Force. Employment increased by 1,300,000 between the two months, while unemployment went up by 300,000.

TABLE 1.—Estimated Civilian Labor Force by Employment Status and Sex, in Selected Months, June 1940–June 1943¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Sex and employment status	Estimated number (millions of persons)				
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	June 1941	June 1940
Both sexes.....	54.6	53.0	56.1	56.2	56.2
Unemployed ²	1.2	.9	2.8	6.0	8.6
Employed.....	53.4	52.1	53.3	50.2	47.6
Nonagriculture.....	41.5	41.3	41.8	39.3	36.6
Agriculture.....	11.9	10.8	11.5	10.9	11.0
Males.....	37.3	36.7	41.1	42.3	42.3
Unemployed ²6	.5	1.7	4.0	5.9
Employed.....	36.7	36.2	39.4	38.3	36.4
Nonagriculture.....	27.1	27.2	30.0	28.9	26.9
Agriculture.....	9.6	9.0	9.4	9.4	9.5
Females.....	17.3	16.3	15.0	13.9	13.9
Unemployed ²6	.4	1.1	2.0	2.7
Employed.....	16.7	15.9	13.9	11.9	11.2
Nonagriculture.....	14.4	14.1	11.8	10.4	9.7
Agriculture.....	2.3	1.8	2.1	1.5	1.5

¹ All data exclude persons in institutions.² Includes persons on public emergency projects.

The influx of teen-age boys and girls into the labor market following the close of the school term accounted for the entire increase in the labor force between May and June. Employment among persons under 20 years of age increased by 1,400,000 and unemployment by 300,000 (table 2). However, labor-market participation in this age group was lower by 500,000 in June of this year than in June of last year. Although the number of teen-age girls in the labor force actually increased by 500,000 over the year period, the number of boys in the same age group declined by 1,000,000 largely as a result of inductions into the armed forces.

Footnotes to table 6 (continued).

Cigarettes—February 1943 average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings to \$25.53, 37.4 hours, and 68.0 cents. Revised averages not strictly comparable with previously published data for earlier months. Comparable January 1943 figures are \$29.14, 41.5 hours, and 70.1 cents.

Professional and scientific instruments and fire control equipment—February 1943 average weekly earnings to \$49.25.

Telephone and telegraph—January 1943 average weekly earnings, average weekly hours, and average hourly earnings to \$34.40, 41.1 hours, and 84.2 cents, respectively.

Street railways and busses—January 1943 average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to 49.2 hours and 85.6 cents, respectively.

Hotels—January 1943 average weekly earnings, average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to \$19.35, 44.7 hours, and 42.2 cents, respectively.

Dyeing and cleaning—February 1943 average weekly hours and average hourly earnings to 43.0 hours and 61.8 cents, respectively.

Brokerage—January 1943, and February 1943 average weekly earnings to \$45.91 and \$47.64, respectively.

Insurance—January 1943 average weekly earnings to \$39.77.

³ *Underwear and neckwear, men's*—Average hourly earnings not comparable with previously published data. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

⁴ Not available.

⁵ Average hourly earnings for February 1943 as shown in table 2, page 6, of the release dated June 13, 1943, should have been 88.2 instead of 86.2 cents.

The majority of the new workers were absorbed by the seasonal upswing in farm employment which accounted for 1,100,000 of the 1,300,000 gain in the number of jobs. This brought employment in agriculture to a total of 11,900,000—the highest figure recorded since the inception of the series in April 1940.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated Civilian Labor Force, Employment and Unemployment, by Age and Sex, in May and June 1943 and June 1942*¹

[Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census]

Employment status and age	Estimated number (millions of persons)								
	Total			Male			Female		
	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942	June 1943	May 1943	June 1942
Total civilian labor force.....	54.6	53.0	56.1	37.3	36.7	41.1	17.3	16.3	15.0
14-19 years.....	6.9	5.2	7.4	3.8	3.0	4.8	3.1	2.2	2.6
20-24 years.....	5.1	5.2	6.5	2.2	2.3	3.7	2.9	2.9	2.8
25-34 years.....	11.5	11.5	12.4	7.5	7.6	8.9	4.0	3.9	3.5
35-44 years.....	11.9	11.9	11.7	8.4	8.4	8.9	3.5	3.5	2.8
45-54 years.....	9.9	10.1	9.5	7.7	7.9	7.6	2.2	2.2	1.9
55-64 years.....	6.5	6.3	6.2	5.3	5.1	5.1	1.2	1.2	1.1
65 years and over.....	2.8	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.1	.4	.4	.3
Total persons employed.....	53.4	52.1	53.3	36.7	36.2	39.4	16.7	15.9	13.9
14-19 years.....	6.4	5.0	6.6	3.6	2.9	4.4	2.8	2.1	2.2
20-24 years.....	5.0	5.1	6.2	2.1	2.3	3.6	2.9	2.8	2.6
25-34 years.....	11.4	11.4	12.0	7.5	7.6	8.7	3.9	3.8	3.3
35-44 years.....	11.8	11.8	11.3	8.4	8.3	8.6	3.4	3.5	2.7
45-54 years.....	9.8	9.9	9.1	7.6	7.8	7.3	2.2	2.1	1.8
55-64 years.....	6.3	6.2	5.8	5.1	5.0	4.8	1.2	1.2	1.0
65 years and over.....	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.0	.3	.4	.3
Total persons unemployed ²	1.2	.9	2.8	.6	.5	1.7	.6	.4	1.1
14-19 years.....	.5	.2	.8	.2	.1	.4	.3	.1	.4
20-24 years.....	.1	.1	.3	.1	(³)	.1	(²)	.1	.2
25-34 years.....	.1	.1	.4	(²)	(³)	.2	.1	.1	.2
35-44 years.....	.1	.1	.4	(²)	.1	.3	.1	(²)	.1
45-54 years.....	.1	.2	.4	.1	.1	.3	(²)	.1	.1
55-64 years.....	.2	.1	.4	.2	.1	.3	(²)	(²)	.1
65 years and over.....	.1	.1	.1	(²)	.1	.1	.1	(²)	(²)

¹ All data exclude persons in institutions.

² Persons on public emergency work projects are included with the unemployed.

³ Less than 50,000.

Labor Chronology

Chronology of Labor Events, April to June 1943¹

APRIL

1943

Apr. 1. The Combined Labor War Board, composed of representatives of the American Federation of Labor, of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, and of the Railway Brotherhoods, held a conference with the President at which they told him that they were not renewing their request for wage increases but were asking, instead, for reductions in food prices to the level of September 15, 1942. They urged him to veto the Bankhead Bill (see Chron. item for April 2, this issue) and asked for labor representation in the Office of Price Administration, the War Production Board, and the new food administration (see Chron. item, Mar. 26, M. L. R. May 1943). (Sources: American Federation of Labor Weekly News Service, Apr. 6, 1943; The CIO News, Apr. 5, 1943, p. 8; New York Times, Apr. 2, p. 14.)

On June 2 the Combined Labor War Board presented to the President a program calling for (1) a roll-back of prices of foods and other cost-of-living items to the levels of May 15, 1942; (2) subsidies of as much as two billion dollars to producers and distributors in order to roll prices back; (3) removal of certain officials "who have failed to carry out" the price-stabilization directives; and (4) the appointment of deputy directors representing labor to the Office of Economic Stabilization, the Office of Price Administration, and the War Food Administration. (Sources: The White House; American Federation of Labor Weekly News Service, June 8, 1943; New York Times, June 4, p. 1.)

Apr. 1. The National War Labor Board, in a formal written opinion supporting its decision of November 25, 1942, which denied the petition of four plywood companies in Oregon and Washington for a review of a decision of the West Coast Lumber Commission, stated the four bases on which it would review the decisions of its lower bodies. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-581. For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, p. 1203.)

Apr. 2. The President vetoed the Bankhead Bill whose purpose was to "exclude in the determination of parity price any deduction for any subsidy payment, parity payment, incentive payment, or other payment made with respect to any agricultural commodity." Price Administrator Prentiss M. Brown had warned Senate leaders that enactment of the bill would raise retail prices 7 percent and cost the Government an additional 500 million dollars every year to feed the armed forces and to supply our Allies. (Sources: White House, Press release of Apr. 2, 1943; OPA-2079.)

On April 9 the recently organized National Agricultural Mobilization Committee (Des Moines, Iowa), claiming to represent the views of the majority of American farmers, and representing farmers, principally from the Midwest, not belonging to the "big four" farm organizations (the National Grange, the National Farmers Union, the American Farm Bureau Federation, and the National Cooperative Council) conferred with the Price Administrator and pledged their support to keeping farm prices stable. (Source: OPA-2252.)

¹ Prepared in the Bureau's Division of Historical Studies of Wartime Problems.

1943

- Apr. 2. The National War Labor Board, in order to improve labor relations at the Allis-Chalmers Manufacturing Co., granted the Marshall Field type of "union security" clause (first granted Mar. 5, 1942) to members of 3 C. I. O. unions at 4 Allis-Chalmers plants, employing about 23,000 workers—18,000 of them at the plant in West Allis, Wis. (Under this clause an employee is obligated to maintain his union membership for the duration of the contract only if he voluntarily certifies in writing that he authorizes the company to deduct union dues from his pay and that he will, as a condition of employment, continue as a union member for the life of the contract.) (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-539.)
- Apr. 5. The Office of Price Administration issued specific cents-per-pound retail ceiling prices on beef, veal, lamb, and mutton, to go into effect on April 25, providing uniform maximum prices in retail stores of the same class (four classes altogether) in each of the 10 zones into which the country was divided for this purpose. Pork had already been placed under such controls. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2122, OPA-2123.) Because of the President's "hold-the-line" order of April 8, the above-mentioned ceiling prices were revised downward and did not go into effect until May 17. (Source: OPA-2479.) (See Chron. item for May 4, this issue.)
- Apr. 5. The State Department and the Department of Agriculture announced that an agreement had been signed with the Government of Jamaica for the importation of up to 10,000 Jamaican agricultural workers into the United States to relieve farm-labor shortages in critical areas. (See Chron. item for March 20, M. L. R. May 1943.) (Source: Department of State Bulletin, Apr. 10, 1943, p. 312.)
- Apr. 6. The Interstate Commerce Commission, in response to the petition of the Price Administrator and the Director of Economic Stabilization, suspended, effective May 15, 1943, the increase in freight rates and charges (averaging 4.7 percent) that became effective March 18, 1942, and the increase in passenger fares (averaging 9 percent) that became effective February 10, 1942. These increases had been obtained by the railroads to offset wage increases granted late in 1941. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2493.)
- Apr. 8. The President issued his "hold-the-line" order prohibiting "further increases in prices affecting the cost of living or further increases in general wage or salary rates except where clearly necessary to correct substandard living conditions." (Sources: White House, Press release of Apr. 8, 1943; Executive Order No. 9238. For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, May 1943, p. 876.)
- Apr. 8. The President approved an act creating two selective-service committees, one in the judicial and the other in the legislative branch of the Government, to pass on the occupational deferment of Federal employees in these branches. These committees will, in the main, follow the procedures and standards prescribed by Executive Order No. 9309 for employees in the Executive branch of the Government (see Chron. item for Mar. 6, M. L. R. May 1943).
- The act also instructed the Director of Selective Service to make monthly reports to the Congress, showing the names and positions of Federal employees having occupational deferment. (Source: Public Law 23.)

1943

Apr. 9. National War Labor Board Chairman, William H. Davis, announced that General Order No. 4 and General Order No. 5 of the Board (see Chron. item for Oct. 9, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943) had been modified. Regional boards were authorized to control wage increases in plants employing eight or fewer workers where such increases would have an unstabilizing effect. Likewise automatic wage adjustments resulting from promotions, reclassifications, and merit rewards would be subject to review in cases where there would be an appreciable rise in production costs leading to an increase in prices. (Source: National War Labor Board, B-567.)

The Board expressed itself as not opposed to incentive-bonus plans, provided such plans do not increase unit labor cost and are subject to periodic review by the wage stabilization division of the Board. (Source: National War Labor Board, B-632.)

Apr. 10. The Public Debt Act of 1943 went into effect without the President's signature. A rider in the act to which the President objected removed the existing \$25,000 limitation on individual net salary incomes (see Chron. item for Oct. 27, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943), by providing that no wages or salaries for any particular work shall be reduced under the act of October 2, 1942, "below the highest wages or salaries paid therefor between January 1, 1942, and September 15, 1942." (Source: Public Law 34.)

Apr. 10. President Phillip Murray of the C. I. O. announced that implementation of the no-raid agreement executed by the C. I. O.-A. F. of L. labor-unity committee (see Chron. item for Dec. 2, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943, and for Jan. 22, 1943, M. L. R. May 1943) had struck a snag in the demand made by the A. F. of L. representatives at the labor-unity conference which met in Washington on April 1 "for an agreement to the effect that the prohibition against raiding must embrace all situations where collective-bargaining contracts are outstanding for the duration of the war." (Source: The CIO News, Apr. 12, 1943, p. 3.)

April 10. The National War Labor Board unanimously upheld the authority of its regional boards to conduct elections to determine labor bargaining agents in war plants whenever such plants are not engaged in interstate commerce and thus not under the jurisdiction of the Wagner Act. The decision was made after the Austin Co., a construction engineering firm of Chicago, Ill., had appealed from a directive of the Sixth Regional War Labor Board ordering it to bargain collectively with three A. F. of L. unions designated as bargaining agents after elections conducted by the regional board. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-633.)

Apr. 12. The War Manpower Commission announced that it had eliminated dependency as a reason for draft deferment of men with collateral dependents and wives only, except for necessary farmers and in cases where extreme hardship and privation would result. A revised list of classifications for selective-service registrants was issued with the following principal revisions: Class III-B, containing men having dependents and engaged in activities essential to the war effort, was eliminated. Class III-A was revised to contain registrants in deferrable activities or occupations (see Chron. item for Feb. 2, M. L. R. May 1943) maintaining bona fide relationship from prior to December 8, 1941, with at least one child born before September 15, 1942. Class III-D was created for hardship cases. (See also Chron. item for March 7, M. L. R. May 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4357.)

1943

Apr. 12. The OPA authorized its regional offices to set maximum prices for food and beverages served by public eating and drinking establishments. This action had become practicable as a result of the Executive order of April 8. The week of April 4-10 was chosen as the base-price period, and every eating and drinking place in the country was directed to file, by May 1, with its local board "a copy of each menu or price list it used during the base period." (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2266.)

On May 24 the OPA announced the creation of a restaurant-industry advisory committee, composed of 19 leaders in this field from all parts of the country, for the purpose of (1) developing methods of lowering abnormally high prices, especially in defense centers, and (2) reviewing the specific provisions of regulations already issued. (Source: OPA-2573.)

Apr. 14. In conformity with the Executive order of April 8, the National War Labor Board instructed its regional boards "to deny at once all proposed wage and salary adjustments which involve only interplant inequalities and which cannot be decided on the basis of the Little Steel formula or substandards of living." Approximately 10,000 requests for wage or salary increases were thus affected. The Board also announced that referees' or arbitrators' awards granting wage increases not in conformity with the Executive order of April 8 would not be approved even if granted before that date. Also rejected would be applications from canners and other seasonal producers for increases in wages over the previous season. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-576.)

On May 10 Director of Economic Stabilization James F. Byrnes issued a policy directive allowing canners and other food processors to increase wages to the level of wages of common agricultural labor in the particular labor market area "plus the differential (but not more than 8 cents an hour) which existed during the 1940 and 1941 processing season between farm and food processing common labor rates." (Source: Office of Economic Stabilization, OES-15.)

Apr. 14. For the first time since agricultural workers earning less than \$2,400 yearly were exempted from the provisions of the Presidential order of October 3, stabilizing all wages and salaries (see Chron. item for Nov. 30, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943), maximum rates were established for agricultural work by the War Food Administration (see Chron. item for Mar. 26, M. L. R. May 1943). Maximum wage rates were specified "for work in connection with the harvesting of asparagus for canning and freezing in five California counties" (Sacramento, San Joaquin, Yolo, Solano, and Contra Costa). (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Agriculture, AG-312.)

Apr. 16. The War Manpower Commission, in conformity with the Executive order of April 8 and with the approval of the Economic Stabilization Director, issued Regulation No. 4 restricting the transfer of workers, effective April 18, 1943. Transfers to higher-paid jobs were forbidden to employees who during the preceding 30-day period were engaged in essential activities; such transfers were not out of the question but would be "subject to and permitted under an employment-stabilization program approved by the War Manpower Commission." Transfers to similar-paying jobs were not forbidden except where employees were in essential jobs covered by employment-stabilization plans. Provision was made for the transfer to better-paid jobs of workers not fully utilizing their skills. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4362; PM-4364.)

On April 17, the War Manpower Commission issued a revised list of 35 essential industries and activities (for summary, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, p. 1092). (Source: PM-4363.)

1943

Apr. 16—
Con.

The Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, Paul V. McNutt, on May 1 approved Regulation No. 5, providing "machinery for appeals by employees and employers from any War Manpower Commission action under employment stabilization plans, the 48-hour-week policy, and other manpower regulations." (Source: PM-4390.)

The Chairman announced on May 21 that school teachers would not be barred, under Regulation No. 4, from leaving for higher-paid teaching positions in the autumn. (Source: PM-4392.)

Apr. 19. The President, by Executive order, established within the Department of the Interior a Solid Fuels Administration for War, with the Secretary of the Interior serving ex officio as administrator. The term "solid fuels" includes "all forms of anthracite, bituminous, sub-bituminous, and lignitic coals." The Office of Solid Fuels Coordination for National Defense (established on Nov. 5, 1941, and changed to the Office of Solid Fuels Coordinator for War on May 25, 1942) was abolished and its personnel, records, property, and funds transferred to the new Administration. (Source: The White House, Press release of Apr. 19, 1943.)

Apr. 19. The President by Executive order changed the name of the Administration of Food Production and Distribution (see Chron. item for Mar. 26, M. L. R. May 1943) to War Food Administration, and in this connection defined the powers, functions, and duties of the War Food Administrator and of the Secretary of Agriculture. (Source: The White House, Press release of Apr. 19, 1943.)

Apr. 20. The OPA announced that War Ration Book 3, providing new stamps to replace those running out in existing books, would be distributed through the mails in June and July. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2334.) Approximately 131,600,000 copies of War Ration Book 1 had been issued and 126,331,000 of War Ration Book 2. (Source: OPA-T-800.)

Apr. 21. The National War Labor Board unanimously authorized the Curtiss-Wright Corporation to reduce its workweek from 7 to 6 days at its Caldwell and Clifton, N. J., plants, employing about 7,500 workers. Although the workers were on a 56-hour week there was an excessive degree of absenteeism, so that they averaged only about 52 hours a week. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-601.)

Apr. 26. The War Department announced that there would soon be distributed to all high schools, cards on which to list the school and job history of each pupil. Such records will prove useful in classifying students for Army service or war work after they leave school. (Source: Office of War Information, War Department, OWI-1688.)

On May 18 the War Manpower Commission announced that State apprenticeship directors from nine States and the territory of Hawaii, after a 5-day conference in Washington (the first of its kind), had recommended the establishment of combination apprenticeship and high-school systems in every war production area, to permit apprentices 16 and 17 years old to complete their high-school studies while receiving their training on the job. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4389.)

Apr. 27. The War Manpower Commission excluded from the 48-hour wartime workweek order (See Chron. item for Feb. 9, M. L. R. May 1943) "persons in the employ of the District of Columbia, any foreign government, and the legislative and judicial branches of the Federal Government, and any instrumentality of these agencies." (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4372.)

1943

- Apr. 29. The President approved an act appropriating \$26,100,000 "to assist in providing a supply and distribution of farm labor for the calendar year 1943." (Source: Public Law 45.)

On June 23, the War Food Administration announced the establishment of an Office of Labor which absorbed an interim organization created on April 30 under the act, and assumed "full responsibility for carrying out all labor, manpower, and wage-stabilization programs of the War Food Administration heretofore carried out by various agencies of the Administration, including the Food Distribution Administration, the Food Production Administration, and the Farm Security Administration." Col. Philip G. Bruton was appointed Deputy War Food Administrator in charge of the Office. (For main agricultural objectives, see Chron. items for Mar. 1 and Mar. 7, M. L. R. May 1943.) On April 15, as one result of the farm-labor program, agricultural draft deferments numbered 1,012,302. (Sources: Office of War Information, Department of Agriculture, AG-373, AG-552; Office of Labor, Department of Agriculture.)

- Apr. 30. Secretary of Labor Frances Perkins reported to the Planning Panel, made up of leaders of labor and management and of Government officials, on the work of the war safety-training program of the United States Department of Labor. She said that "approximately 38,000 key supervisors have been trained to carry responsibility for the safety and health of war workers and 17,000 additional will be trained to meet expected demands by July 1944." The Secretary also said that "Plans now being developed will enable selected graduates in turn in their own plants to instruct in basic safety techniques foremen, assistant foremen, and leadmen, who will then give on-the-job safety instruction to some 12,500,000 workers." (Source: Office of War Information, U. S. Department of Labor, OWI-1723.)
- Apr. 30. The Federal Price Administrator announced a 4-point program "to control and in many instances to roll back the cost of living and then hold it": (1) to extend price control to every important commodity; (2) to roll back prices that get out of hand; for example, those of meats and fresh and canned vegetables; (3) to establish specific dollar-and-cent prices for foods, available in small printed booklets to every housewife; and (4) to eliminate illegitimate markets by bringing the "chiseler, the racketeer, the black-market operator to justice." (Source: Office of Price Administration, text of address by Prentiss M. Brown, Apr. 30, 1943.)
- Apr. 30. The Governments of the United States and Mexico concluded an agreement providing for temporary migration of unskilled nonagricultural Mexican workers to the United States. The first workers to come into the United States under the agreement would be 6,000 maintenance-of-way workers for railroads in the Southwestern and Pacific Coast States (see p. 240 of this issue). This agreement like the one of August 4, 1942, for agricultural workers, of whom there were already about 15,000 in California, Arizona, and Washington, provides guarantees as to wage rates, living conditions, and repatriation in case of unemployment. (Source: Department of State Bulletin, May 1, 1943, p. 376; Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4376.)

MAY

1943

May 1. The President by Executive order authorized and directed the Secretary of the Interior to take over and operate coal mines wherein strikes existed or threatened to occur. (Source: Executive Order 9340. For summary of order, see M. L. R. June 1943, p. 1093.)

The Secretary of the Interior, as Solid Fuels Administrator, immediately sent directions to 3,400 bituminous-coal mining companies taking over their mines in the name of the United States. (Source: Office of War Information, office of the Solid Fuels Administration for War, and OWI-1741, OWI-1745.) On May 4 the 6-day week was ordered for all Government-operated bituminous-coal and anthracite mines (see p. 237 of this issue for later regulations). (Source: OWI-1774.)

For issues involved in the strike, and later events, see page 290 of this issue.

May 1. The Chairman of the War Manpower Commission issued an order placing more than 525,000 workers in the steel industry on a minimum 48-hour week basis (see Chron. item for February 9, M. L. R. May 1943). At this time the steel industry was averaging 41.5 hours a week. The order applied specifically to "blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills," and was intended to reduce labor turnover which was stimulated by opportunities for overtime pay in other industries. Under provisions of the order no establishment working less than 48 hours a week after June 1, 1943, might hire any new workers. Establishments requiring the release of workers because of the longer week would have to submit schedules on or after July 1, 1943, indicating the time of such release to the area or regional director of the War Manpower Commission or his designated representative. Upon approval of the schedule the minimum 48-hour week would be established. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4377.)

On May 31, the War Manpower Commission issued instructions to all regional war manpower directors, providing for the 48-hour week in the whole steel industry by August 1. It was estimated that the equivalent of 50,000 workers would be added to the labor force by the introduction of the 48-hour week in the steel industry. (Source: PM-4396.)

May 4. The OPA announced that the dollar-and-cent retail ceiling prices would be extended to all major foods. (See Chron. item for Apr. 5, this issue.) Beginning May 10, a group of ceilings would go into effect each week (perishable fruits, vegetables, and luxuries not included). The foods announced on May 9 included coffee, sugar, bread, fluid milk, butter, eggs, poultry, frozen fish, evaporated and condensed milk, macaroni and noodle products, shortenings, and cooking and salad oils. In the subsequent week ceilings were announced for nine canned foods—peas, corn, tomatoes, tomato juice, green beans, peaches, pears, pineapple, and fruit cocktail. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2437, OPA-2520.) (See also Chron. item for May 7, this issue.)

Local rationing boards were instructed to appoint price panels to administer the price ceilings and to help buyers understand them. (Source: OPA-T-867.) On May 18 the Office of Price Administration instructed its regional and district officers immediately to form advisory committees to assist in carrying out the new ceilings. (Source: OPA-2528.)

1943

- May 7. The Price Administrator announced that the first roll-back in prices toward the level of September 15, 1942, would be applied to rationed foods on June 1, when the retail prices of beef, veal, pork, lamb, mutton, coffee, and butter would be reduced approximately 10 percent. (See also Chron. item for Apr. 5, this issue.) He had recommended to the Secretary of Commerce that subsidy payments be made to processors of these foods in order to assure production. (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2466.) On June 10 the price of butter was rolled back 10 percent, or 5 to 6 cents per pound. (Source: OPA-2658, OPA-T-1016.) The prices for all meats except cured and processed pork were rolled back about 10 percent, or 3 cents per pound, on June 21; the roll-back on the excepted pork would be effective July 5. (Source: OPA-2614, OPA-2715.)
- The OPA had previously announced other roll-backs: on May 12 it rolled back the price of wide-mouth glass containers used by commercial packers to the July 1, 1941, price level, or 5 to 7.5 percent, with an announced annual saving to consumers of at least \$4,000,000. (Source: OPA-2435); on May 25 ceiling prices of potatoes were rolled back about 7 percent by cutting in half the number of mark-ups made by wholesalers and similar distributors. (Source: OPA-2579.)
- May 7. The President approved the "War Overtime Act of 1943," continuing, as from May 1, 1943, the overtime rates of compensation for Federal employees, authorized to that date by the law of December 22, 1942 (see Chron. item for Dec. 22, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943). The new law continued most of the provisions of the old one, but with some important changes and additions. (Source: Public Law 49; for summary, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, p. 1203.) On April 9 the President had approved an act granting temporary additional compensation at the rate of \$300 per annum to employees in the Postal Service. (Source: Public Law 25.)
- May 8. The Office of War Information, after a 2-week survey, reported on Baltimore's experience in creating the first voluntary job-control program. The "Baltimore plan" was made public in August 1942 after being drawn up by the War Manpower Commission's area advisory committee composed of prominent industrialists and labor leaders, with the purpose of attacking transportation, housing, health, and manpower difficulties. After 8 months' experience under the plan, Baltimore had eliminated labor piracy in its area, stimulated the recruitment of woman workers, expanded training programs, and overcome prejudice against the employment of Negroes. The plan, however, provided little control over labor turnover and migration into the city.
- Since the Baltimore plan was launched, 67 other communities have adopted job-control agreements, and War Manpower Commission area directors are laying foundations for similar agreements in 105 other industrial areas. (Source: Office of War Information, OWI-1714.)
- May 11. The War Production Board announced that the conversion of prison industries to war work, begun in May 1942, has involved 160,000 prisoners in over 100 State prisons. Since the President had by Executive order removed the legal obstacles to the sale of prison-made goods, the prison war contracts have totaled almost \$8,000,000 to date, and cover such products as textiles, garments, shoes, soap, jute bags, burlap, and products from various machine shops, foundries, and woodworking and metal plants. (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, WPB-3503.)
- May 12. The Director of Economic Stabilization issued a directive clarifying and defining the Executive order of April 8, and outlining the authority of the National War Labor Board to adjust wages (for text of order and discussion, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, p. 1090).

1943
May 12—
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In order to have wage standards on which to act, the Board was authorized "to establish as rapidly as possible, by occupational groups and labor-market areas, the wage-rate brackets embracing all those various rates found to be sound and tested going rates. All the rates within these brackets are to be regarded as stabilized rates * * *." In the establishment of wage brackets the Board is aided by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor, and the tripartite panels of the regional boards. (Sources: Office of Economic Stabilization, Press Release of May 12, 1943; Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-763.)

On May 19 the National War Labor Board instructed its regional boards to deal with the following cases at their discretion, subject to the Executive order of April 8 and its clarification on May 12 by the Director of Economic Stabilization: (1) Intraplant adjustments necessary to do equity but not mentioned by the May 12 directive; (2) "applications by employers not under the Fair Labor Standards Act to pay time and one-half for hours over 40, or to change from a fluctuating to a fixed workweek for the purpose of computing overtime * * *"; (3) "adjustments incident to the improvement of working conditions [e. g., night-shift bonuses, vacation pay, sick leave] which do not involve increasing basic wage rates, and which do not exceed the sound prevailing practice in the industry or area." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-674.)

May 15. The War Manpower Commission issued a regional employment-stabilization plan for region IV (the District of Columbia, Virginia, Maryland, West Virginia, North Carolina), effective May 15. (See also Chron. item for Nov. 22, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4385.)

May 17. The War Food Administration and the Office of Price Administration announced the establishment of a 9-member War Meat Board in Chicago, to represent the meat industry and civilian and military branches of the Government in the allocation and distribution of the national meat supply among the armed forces, the civilians, and the Lend-Lease agencies. (Source: Office of War Information, Department of Agriculture, AG-426.)

May 18. The War Manpower Commission announced that about 5,500 employers had filed replacement schedules with State directors of Selective Service, "providing for the orderly induction of approximately 3,000,000 industrial workers now deferred from military service as 'necessary men' in essential civilian activities." (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4388, PM-4395.)

On June 1, the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission announced that military manpower requirements would permit only about 1,500,000 industrial deferments by December 31, 1943. (Source: PM-4395.)

On June 15, occupational deferment of men 18 to 24 on July 1 who are not fathers was limited, by instructions from the Commission, to 6 months. Fathers were not to be scheduled for release by employers before October 1, 1943. (Source: PM-4399.)

May 24. The War Production Board announced the results of its first survey of labor-management production committees, after a year of operation. On the basis of reports from 800 of the 2,000 committees being canvassed, the Board reported that the principal activities of the committees are information and morale-building programs, suggestions systems, conservation of materials, safety, transportation, absenteeism, care of tools and equipment, production problems, quality control, training, and nutrition and health. (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, WPB-3576.)

By July 10, 1943, there were in existence some 2,250 labor-management production committees, representing about 4,800,000 workers. (Source: War Production Board, War Production Drive Headquarters.)

1943

May 24. The National War Labor Board extended the life of the advisory Daily Newspaper Printing and Publishing Panel (see Chron. item for Feb. 24, M. L. R. May 1943), "pending a review by the Board of the work of the panel, and the Board's determination as to what finally should be done." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-662.) On June 16 the panel was authorized, subject to the Board's review, "to make final decisions on all unanimously passed voluntary wage or salary adjustment cases where the increase falls within the Board's 15-percent cost-of-living maladjustment formula." (Source: B-733.) However, on July 3, indirectly because of a provision in the War Labor Disputes Law of June 25, the panel was returned to its advisory status. (Source: B-780.)

May 26. The National War Labor Board adopted a general order forbidding the granting without its approval, of wage increases in individual cases, based on merit, promotion or reclassification, apprentice or trainee systems, or on length of service. Not requiring Board approval are cases conforming to (1) a collective-bargaining agreement in existence on May 31, 1943, (2) the employer's practice before October 27, 1942, (3) a schedule specifically approved by the Board, and (4) methods and standards established by the Board. (See Chron. item for Oct. 9, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-680; General Order No. 31.)

May 27. The President by Executive order created the Office of War Mobilization, under the direction of Justice James F. Byrnes, to be assisted by a War Mobilization Committee composed of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Chairman of the Munitions Assignment Board, the Chairman of the War Production Board, and the Economic Stabilization Director. Heads of departments and agencies will sit with the Committee when questions relating to their departments or agencies come up for consideration.

The Office of War Mobilization, with the advice of the Committee and subject to the direction and control of the President, shall (1) develop unified programs and establish policies for the maximum use of the Nation's resources and manpower, and (2) unify and harmonize Government activities concerned with the production and distribution of military or civilian goods. (For text of Executive order, see Monthly Labor Review, June 1943, p. 1089.) (Source: White House, Press-release of May 28, 1943, Executive Order No. 9347.)

May 27. The President by Executive order created a new Committee on Fair Employment Practice, empowering it to "conduct hearings, make findings of fact, and take appropriate steps to obtain elimination" of "discrimination in the employment of any person in war industries or in Government by reason of race, creed, color, or national origin." (Source: White House, Executive Order No. 9346. For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1943, p. 32.)

Monsignor Francis J. Haas was appointed chairman of the committee. The six other members of the committee were appointed to represent labor and industry equally. (Source: White House, Press release of July 1, 1943.)

JUNE

June 4. The National War Labor Board announced that the Executive order of April 8 did not prevent adjustments in wage rates without the Board's approval "to equalize wage or salary rates paid to females with the rates paid to males for comparable quantity and quality of work on the same or similar operations in the same plant." (See Chron. item for Nov. 24, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943.) (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-693.)

June 5. The [National War Labor Board, in a unanimous decision, in a case concerning the Southport Petroleum Co., ordered the abolition of pay differentials between white and Negro workers performing the same type of work. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-702. For summary, see Monthly Labor Review, July 1943, p. 31.)

1943

June 9. The President approved the Current Tax Payment Act of 1943. This act put income tax paying on a current basis by canceling \$50 of the 1942 or 1943—whichever is smaller—yearly income tax owed up to \$66.67, and 75 percent of the tax over \$66.67. The remaining 25 percent was made payable, half on March 15, 1944, and half on March 15, 1945. The larger tax, either for 1942 or 1943, will be paid from the amount accumulating to the taxpayer's credit from his two quarterly tax payments in 1943, part of his Victory Tax (see Chron. item for Oct. 21, 1942, M. L. R. February 1943), and from the deductions to be made from his pay checks by his employer after June 30, 1943. Employers were instructed to withhold 20 percent of each employee's pay, after proper exemptions. Not subject to the withholding tax are farm and domestic workers, members of the armed forces, clergymen, and certain others.

Self-employers and others with taxable incomes will have to file estimates of their yearly earnings by March 15 of the taxable year and make quarterly tax payments. Farmers, however, were given time until the fifteenth day of the last month of the taxable year to file estimates of their tax.

All taxpayers will file their final returns for the preceding year on or before March 15, as has been done heretofore. The difference between the estimated tax and the withheld tax will then be adjusted. (Source: Public Law 68.)

June 9. The Office of Price Administration announced that it had created machinery for the formation of advisory committees to cover all industries affected by OPA price regulations. Hitherto, the 92 existing industry advisory committees had been formed at the request of industries exercising their right under the Emergency Price Control Act.

The OPA also announced that in this connection "opportunity would be given for consultation with representatives of organized labor through the OPA Labor Policy Committee, established more than a year ago, and through subcommittees to be set up by the Labor Policy Committee. The subcommittees are to be composed of representatives of particular unions interested in particular price regulations." (Source: Office of War Information, Office of Price Administration, OPA-2654.)

June 15. War Production Board Chairman Donald M. Nelson, at the conclusion of a meeting of the WPB Labor-Management Council (see Chron. item for Mar. 30, M. L. R. May 1943), announced the creation of two new offices within the War Production Board—Manpower Liaison and Labor Production—in order to enable the active participation of men from labor's ranks in WPB policy making. The heads or vice chairmen of the two new offices (Clinton S. Golden, C. I. O., and Joseph D. Keenan, A. F. of L.) report directly to Executive Vice Chairman Charles E. Wilson on matters pertaining to the determination of labor requirements and increasing labor productivity. (Source: Office of War Information, War Production Board, WPB-3896.)

On June 16 the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission announced the appointment of Mr. Golden as Vice Chairman of the Commission, as a further step to coordinate the operations with respect to labor relations of the two organizations. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4402.)

June 23. The President approved an act to protect the reemployment rights of persons entering the merchant marine. (For summary of act, see page 307, this issue). (Source: Public Law 87.)

June 23. The War Manpower Commission announced the completion of plans for the establishment and operation of the first U. S. Employment Service office in Puerto Rico. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4403.)

1943

- June 25. Congress by a two-thirds vote passed the War Labor Disputes Act over the President's veto of the same day. (For summary of act, see page 305, this issue.) (Sources: Public Law 89; White House, Press Release of June 25, 1943.)
- June 27. The National War Labor Board announced that it had accepted jurisdiction over the formal review of wages in shipyards. Under the President's Executive Order No. 9250, of October 3, 1942, the Shipbuilding Stabilization Committee has no authority to approve changes in prevailing wage rates. Approximately a million workers in 188 shipyards are covered by the stabilization agreements. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-670.)
- June 29. The National War Labor Board announced that nonprofit organizations operated exclusively for religious, charitable, scientific, literary, or educational purposes may obtain exemption, upon application, "from the necessity of filing applications for approval of wage and salary adjustments of employees within the jurisdiction of the Board." All wage adjustments, however, will have to comply with the national wage and salary stabilization program. (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-762.)
- June 30. The War Manpower Commission authorized its regional directors to classify laundries as "locally needed," and hence "eligible for the same preferential treatment now accorded essential war industries under stabilization plans now in operation throughout the country." In order to qualify for preferential treatment—which includes referral of workers by the U. S. Employment Service, protection from labor piracy, and the stabilization of their labor force—laundries would have to comply with the Commission's standards, aimed at the discontinuance of luxury services. (Source: Office of War Information, War Manpower Commission, PM-4410.)
- June 30. The National War Labor Board, by a vote of 8 to 4 (the labor members dissenting), reaffirmed its decision of May 21, 1943, which granted a general wage increase of 3 cents per hour—to correct maladjustments and provide a differential increase for night-shift workers—to approximately 76,000 employees in the Akron, Ohio, plants of the "big four" rubber companies (United States Rubber Co., B. F. Goodrich Co., Goodyear Tire & Rubber Co., and Firestone Tire & Rubber Co.). The Board reversed its panel's recommendations of a maladjustment allowance of 8 cents per hour, holding that the panel had erred in considering the Akron companies as separate cases. The Board decided that "the industry approach to these cases is not only practical and equitable but the only approach which will provide for the stabilization of wages required under the National Economic Stabilization policy." (Source: Office of War Information, National War Labor Board, B-770, Directive Order of May 21, 1943.)

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

AUGUST 1943

Agriculture and Agricultural Labor

Effects of war on the social and economic status of farm laborers. By Paul S. Taylor. (In *Rural Sociology*, Raleigh, N. C., June 1943, pp. 139-148. 75 cents.)

Farm workers from Mexico. By Charles M. Smith. (In *Agricultural Situation*, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Washington, June 1943, pp. 12-14. 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.)

Brief account of the program for recruitment and transportation of Mexican farm laborers for work in the United States, under the 1942 international agreement between the two nations. Includes information on number of workers recruited, selection and transportation procedures, distribution by States, and grower-worker relations.

Objectives for Canadian agriculture in 1943. Ottawa, Dominion Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Supplies Board, 1943. 44 pp. Statistics of proposed production are given for individual crops.

Child Labor and Child Welfare

Trend of child labor, 1939 to 1942. By Ella Arvilla Merritt, U. S. Children's Bureau. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 20 pp. (Serial No. R 1520; reprinted from March 1943 Monthly Labor Review with additional data.) Free.

An abstract of laws governing the employment of minors in New York State. Albany, Department of Labor, Division of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, June 1943. 26 pp.; mimeographed.

Day care of children in wartime. Ottawa, Canadian Welfare Council, 1942. 22 pp., bibliography; mimeographed.

Outlines the basic functions of child-welfare services, the framework of day-nursery organization, and plans for such an agency. Includes also provisions for children of school age and suggestions for foster-home day care.

Consumer Problems

Consumer problems and projects. By Brooks Spivey Creedy. New York, Woman's Press, 1942. 72 pp. 35 cents.

Covers such subjects as food, clothing, housing, health, personal care, recreation, savings, credit, and insurance, with suggested projects designed to arouse community interest and study.

Consumers in wartime: A guide to family economy in the emergency. By Leland J. Gordon. New York, Harper & Bros., 1943. 154 pp. \$1.75.

The stated purpose of this book is to offer helpful suggestions to consumers on how to spend their money wisely in these days of abnormal conditions. Titles of the five chapters are: You are always a consumer; What war does to you as a consumer; What do you really want?; Getting your money's worth; Making the most of it.

EDITOR'S NOTE.—Correspondence regarding the publications to which reference is made in this list should be addressed to the respective publishing agencies mentioned. Where data on prices were readily available, they have been shown with the title entries. The amounts do not include postage, and also they are subject to change.

Damming and diversion of consumer credit. By William Trufant Foster. Newton, Mass., Pollak Foundation, 1942. 22 pp. (Pollak pamphlet No. 45.) 10 cents.

Argues against further Government control of credit (loans, installment buying, etc.) and contends that inflation should be controlled, rather, by controlling "the main streams of purchasing power."

Cooperative Movement

The cooperative movement and post-war reconstruction. By James McFadyen. Montreal, International Labor Office, 1943. 6 pp.; mimeographed. (Cooperative Information, No. 4, 1943.)

Points out the great possibilities of use, in post-war reconstruction, of the co-operative network in collection and distribution of food and other supplies, in connection with medical care, etc.

Developments in consumers' cooperation in 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 17 pp. (Bull. No. 738; reprinted from March 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Legal phases of cooperative associations. By L. S. Hulbert. Washington, U. S. Farm Credit Administration, 1942. 456 pp. (Bull. No. 50.) 55 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Gives the legal provisions and relevant court decisions on the various points cooperative associations need to know: Matters relating to organization, incorporation, boards of directors, officers and employees, meetings of associations, marketing contracts, taxes, etc. Data relate to agricultural-cooperative laws and decisions regarding them, but much of the information is also helpful to consumers' cooperatives. Revision of previous bulletins.

Research guide on cooperative group farming: A research bibliography on rural cooperative production and cooperative communities. By Joseph W. Eaton and Saul M. Katz. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. 86 pp. \$1.

Student cooperatives in the United States, 1941. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 42 pp. (Bull. No. 740; reprinted from April 1943 Monthly Labor Review, with additional data.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Cooperative movements in South America. By James D. Lecron. (In Foreign Commerce Weekly, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, May 22, 1943, pp. 14, 15, 37.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Education and Training

Digest of annual reports of State Boards for Vocational Education to the U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division, fiscal year ended June 30, 1942. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1943. 59 pp., charts.

Contains summaries of reports of the war-production vocational-education program, and on the agricultural, trade and industrial, home economics, and business education programs.

Report of the Commission on Post-War Training and Adjustment. New York, Columbia University, Teachers College, Institute of Adult Education, 1942. 54 pp. Free.

Statement of principles relating to the educational problems of returning soldiers, sailors, and displaced war-industry workers, which will have to be met after the close of the war.

Time schedules in job training. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 16 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 55.)

Tabulation of estimates of the number of minimum training hours required for almost 600 jobs, based on reports from 31 companies.

Report on training for the building industry. London, Ministry of Works and Planning, Central Council for Works and Buildings, Education Committee, 1942. 56 pp. 1s.

Describes existing schemes for training building craftsmen in Great Britain and makes recommendations as to the training of both youths and men to meet the labor needs of a rapidly expanding building industry after the war.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Emergency medical service in industrial plants. Washington, U. S. Office of Civilian Defense, 1943. 12 pp., bibliography. (Medical Division Bull. No. 7; OCD publication 3061.)

Outline of the organization by the Office of Civilian Defense of medical services in industrial plants to assure adequate medical care in the event of a wartime disaster.

Essentials of health maintenance in industrial plants. By Leonard Greenburg, M. D., Adelaide Ross Smith, M. D., May R. Mayers, M. D. Albany, New York Department of Labor, 1942. 64 pp., plans, illus. (Special bull. No. 213.) 35 cents.

Essentials of industrial health. By C. O. Sappington, M. D. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1943. 626 pp., illus. \$6.50.

This volume is divided into three parts. Part I, on industrial health administration, discusses the extent of occupational morbidity and mortality and industrial medical services. Part II, on industrial hygiene and toxicology, covers the various industrial health hazards and methods of control. Part III, on industrial medicine and traumatic surgery, deals with the adaptation of the worker to his job; the incidence, costs, and prevention of industrial accidents, occupational diseases, nonoccupational disabilities; and workmen's compensation and rehabilitation.

Outline of an industrial hygiene program. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1943. 13 pp. (Supplement No. 171 to Public Health Reports.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

The outline presents the basic structure of an effective hygiene program for industrial plants.

Noxious gases and the principles of respiration influencing their action. By Yandell Henderson and Howard W. Haggard. New York, Reinhold Publishing Corp., 1943. 294 pp. (American Chemical Society monograph series.) 2d and revised ed. \$3.50.

Study of fundamentals in prevention of lead poisoning in industry. By May R. Mayers, M. D. Albany, New York Department of Labor, 1943. 14 pp. 5 cents.

Effects of exposure to toluene used as component of paints. By Leonard Greenburg, M. D., and others. (In Industrial Bulletin, New York State Department of Labor, Albany, March 1943, pp. 122-125; April 1943, pp. 169, 170. 10 cents each.)

Deals with the toxicity of toluene as shown by physical examinations of 106 painters in an airplane factory in New York State. No severe illness was found among these workers but some abnormalities were found which were regarded as evidence of mild intoxication.

Industrial Accidents and Workmen's Compensation

Changes in injury frequency rates and employment in manufacturing, 1936-41. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 6 pp. (Serial No. R. 1528; reprinted from May 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Safety guide for the farm and home front. Minneapolis, Minn., General Mills, Inc., Department of Public Services, [1942?]. 24 pp. Free.

Safeguarding petroleum refineries and their workers. By Roy S. Bonsib. (In Industrial Safety Survey, International Labor Office, Montreal, April-June 1943, pp. 41-66; illus. 50 cents.)

Specifications for protective occupational footwear: Men's safety-toe shoes, etc., Women's safety-toe (oxford) shoes. New York, American Standards Association, 1943. 2 pamphlets, 23 and 12 pp., diagrams, illus. 40 and 25 cents, respectively.

Industrial Accident Commission practice and procedure, with forms. By Warren L. Hanna. Berkeley, Calif., Workmen's Compensation Reporter, 1943. 619 pp. \$10.

Discusses the background of workmen's compensation, general principles of compensation law, and questions related to the administration of the California law.

Workmen's compensation—an outline of legislation in the United States and Territories, as of January 1, 1943. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1943. 33 pp. (Bull. No. 56.) Limited free distribution.

Negro in Industry

The Negro's share—a study of income, consumption, housing, and public assistance. By Richard Sterner. New York, Harper & Bros., 1943. 433 pp. \$4.50.

One of a series of special studies on the American Negro, sponsored and financed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The major subjects of discussion are occupational and employment trends, family composition, family incomes and expenditures, rural and urban housing conditions, and social welfare, including the share of the Negro in subsidized housing and the advantages of the Work Projects Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration, and the Farm Security Administration.

Report of the Massachusetts Commission on the Employment Problems of Negroes. Boston, 1942. 38 pp.

Recommends the appointment of a legislative commission to investigate the condition of the colored urban population of Massachusetts, including housing, health, employment, education, delinquency, and crime.

Occupations

Your future in chemistry. By V. F. Kimball and M. R. Bhagwat. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1943. 48 pp., illus. (American job series, Occupational monograph No. 37.) 60 cents.

The various types of work done by chemists are described and information is given on educational requirements, salaries, etc.

Instrument makers. By Edward Schmid and Michael Brand. Chicago, Science Research Associates, 1943. 48 pp., bibliography, illus. (American job series, Occupational monograph No. 34.) 60 cents.

Lists the types of products manufactured and describes briefly what instrument workers do, job requirements, training, wages, and working conditions.

Do you want to be a nurse? By Dorothy Sutherland. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1942. 186 pp., bibliography. \$2.

Social work as a profession. By Esther Lucile Brown. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1942. 232 pp., 4th ed. \$1.

The author discusses changing concepts of social work and its scope, schools and colleges offering courses in social work, and national associations. The demand for social workers, salaries, and current trends in social work are also discussed.

Nomenclatura nacional de ocupaciones, 1940 [México]. México, D. F., Secretaría de la Economía Nacional, Dirección General de Estadística, 1941. 1062 pp.

Detailed classification of occupations by industries in Mexico, conforming to the occupational nomenclature used in the Mexican census of 1940; with a discussion of the changes in nomenclature which have taken place from one to another of the various censuses since 1895.

Post-War Reconstruction

Post-war economic problems. Edited by Seymour E. Harris. New York and London, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1943. 417 pp. \$3.50.

Symposium of articles on post-war problems, prepared by Government and non-Government economists. The statements of the contributors are their personal views, but, according to the editor, in general they approve the post-war objectives of full employment, high productivity, equitable distribution of income, and removal of trade barriers. The authors also agree, almost unanimously, that "if private enterprise does not provide a high level of employment and a reasonably high standard of living, Government intervention is imperative."

Preliminary recommendation on post-war problems. Formulated by the Inter-American Juridical Committee and submitted to the Governments of the American republics by the governing board of the Pan American Union. Washington, Pan American Union, 1942. Various paging; mimeographed.

Toward a new day. New York, Textile Workers Union of America, CIO, [1943?]. 14 pp. 15 cents.

Post-war program of the Textile Workers Union of America dealing with labor and economic phases of post-war reconstruction.

British post-war planning. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1943. 71 pp.

The information is divided into separate sections, showing the post-war planning activities of different groups.

Great Britain in the post-war world. By G. D. H. Cole. London, Victor Gollancz, Ltd., 1942. 168 pp. 6s.

Never again. By Arthur Greenwood. London, Labor Party, 1943. 11 pp. 2d.

A plea for post-war planning while the war is still in progress, to avoid being unprepared when the time comes for action.

Prices and Price Control

Western prices before 1861—a study of the Cincinnati market. By Thomas Senior Berry. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1943. 645 pp., bibliography, charts. (Harvard economic studies, LXXIV.) \$5.

This volume is much more than a statistical compilation or analysis of prices. Part I gives the general background of the Cincinnati market and discusses transportation rates and costs. Part II takes up commodity prices and gives accounts of the major industries and products. Part III discusses cyclical movements in prices in relation to currency and banking and to speculation and investment. Much information is also given regarding prices and related subjects in various other cities.

Rationing and price control in Great Britain. By Jules Backman. Washington, Brookings Institution, 1943. 68 pp. (Pamphlet No. 50.)

Discusses the methods and results of rationing, and control of prices of food and nonfood products and services and rent in Great Britain. The relationship of the Government's fiscal policy to price control is also discussed and the highlights of British experience, part of which can be usefully applied to the United States, are summarized.

Wartime control of prices in South Africa. By R. H. Smith. (In South African Journal of Economics, Johannesburg, March 1943, pp. 11-23; chart. 6s.)

Production and Productivity of Labor

Learning periods of selected occupations in the machine branch of the cigar industry. New York, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, 1943. 27 pp., charts; mimeographed. Free.

The report is concerned primarily with production of learners in relation to that of experienced workers, but data on average hourly earnings of learners are included.

Productivity of apprentice polishers, at various stages of apprenticeship, in the diamond cutting industry on the mainland (U. S.) and in Puerto Rico. New York, U. S. Department of Labor, Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions, 1943. 27 pp., charts; mimeographed. Free.

Principles of production control—office aid to the factory. London, British Standards Institution, 1943. 16 pp. 6d.

This pamphlet was prepared with the approval of the British Minister of Production and deals with production-control methods to be used by engineering firms.

Sickness Insurance and Medical Care

Distribution of health services in the structure of State Government. By Joseph W. Mountin and Evelyn Flook. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, 1943. Various paging. (Public Health Bull. No. 184. 3d ed.)

Health insurance: Report of the Advisory Committee on Health Insurance [Canada] appointed by Order in Council P. C. 836 dated February 5, 1942. Ottawa, [Department of Pensions and National Health?], 1943. 558 pp., map. \$1.50 (Canadian currency).

Contains the text of a draft bill for health insurance on a compulsory and contributory basis, a historical survey of social security, a comprehensive report on voluntary and compulsory health-insurance schemes in operation in different countries, and a statistical survey of public health in Canada.

Eficacia y economía de las prestaciones médicas y farmacéuticas del Seguro de Enfermedad [Ecuador]. By A. López Sáa. (In Boletín de Informaciones y de Estudios Sociales y Económicos, Instituto Nacional de Previsión, Quito, September 1942, pp. 11-21.)

Examination of the administration of medical and pharmaceutical benefits to workers in Ecuador since 1938 under the sickness-insurance system, with suggestions for improving the system.

Social Security

Job insurance for the returning soldier—a program for their demobilization and return to gainful employment. New York, American Association for the Prevention of Unemployment, 1943. 8 pp.

Our servicemen and economic security. Edited by Robert H. Skilton. Philadelphia, American Academy of Political and Social Science, May 1943. 213 pp. (The Annals, Vol. 227.) \$2.

Subjects covered by the articles in this issue of The Annals include allowances for servicemen's dependents, provisions for taking care of civil liabilities of servicemen through the Soldiers' and Sailors' Civil Relief Act, reemployment of veterans, and government aid in the form of reeducation, pensions, unemployment insurance, etc.

Small business wants old-age security. By Fred Safier. Washington, 1943. 36 pp. (Senate committee print No. 17, 78th Cong., 1st sess.)

This study was made in connection with the work of the Special Committee to Study Problems of American Small Business of the U. S. Senate. The report quotes extensively from letters of small businessmen, and explains how they came to be excluded from the social-security program, why small businessmen need old-age security, and how old-age insurance could be administered for them.

Social Security Bulletins, Nos. 1 to 13. Washington, American Federation of Labor, Committee on Social Security, [1943?].

The bulletins deal with the need for wider social-insurance coverage, and with different phases of the insurance problem.

The Beveridge report. By S. Eckler. Toronto, Labor Research Institute, 1943. 18 pp.; mimeographed. (Publications of Industrial Law Research Council Vol. 5, No. 4.)

Discusses the recommendations of the Beveridge report on social security.

The British social services. By A. D. K. Owen. New York, etc., Longmans, Green & Co. (for British Information Services), [1943]. 63 pp., charts, illus. 2d edition, revised and enlarged.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Effect of incentive payments on hourly earnings. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 9 pp. (Bull. No. 742.) 5 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Incentive wage payments. By Kendrick Lee. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street NW., 1943. 14 pp. (Vol. 1, 1943, No. 18.) \$1.

Development of incentive-wage systems, their possibilities as means of increasing production, and the trade-union attitude toward them, are briefly discussed.

Margins for skill. (In Economic News, Queensland Bureau of Industry, Brisbane, February 1943, pp. 1, 2.)

Wages of skilled workers are computed as a percentage of wages of unskilled workers for a number of countries, including the United States. Differences between the wages of the two groups tend to be greater in countries where industrial development is in an early stage than in those with long industrial experience and education.

Wages in rubber manufacturing industry, August 1942. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 38 pp. (Bull. No. 737; reprinted from Monthly Labor Review, February and March 1943.) 10 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Company problems of wage and salary control. By Ray Warren and others. New York, American Management Association, 1943. 31 pp. (Personnel series No. 65.)

Wage stabilization and inflation. Compiled by Julia E. Johnsen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. 187 pp., bibliography. (Reference Shelf, Vol. 16, No. 4.) \$1.25.

Wartime wage control. By Elbert J. Sheffield. (In George Washington Law Review, Washington, D. C., June 1943, pp. 399-427.) \$1.

Wartime Conditions and Policies

A list of bibliographies on questions relating to national defense. Compiled by Grace Hadley Fuller. Washington, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1942. 59 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution. Bibliographies on labor subjects are included.

Public policy. A yearbook of the Graduate School of Public Administration, Harvard University, 1942, edited by C. J. Friedrich and Edward S. Mason. Cambridge, Mass., 1942. 275 pp. \$3.

Contains critical studies of public policy by public officials and other authorities. Studies presented in part I of the volume deal with war morale and civil liberties; those in part II consider the subject of labor and the war, dealing with the supply, mobilization, and grievances of labor during hostilities; and those in part III examine some problems of war finance and government, particular attention being devoted to planning, industrial mobilization, and changes in the economic structure arising out of the war.

The use of part-time workers in the war effort. By Helen Baker and Rita B. Friedman. Princeton, N. J., Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section, 1942. 48 pp., bibliography. (Research report series No. 67.)

Summary of experience in the United States and Great Britain with employment of part-time workers, their recruitment, hours of work, wage rates, benefits, etc.

Wartime facts and postwar problems—a study and discussion manual. Edited by Evans Clark. New York, Twentieth Century Fund, 1943. 136 pp., bibliography. 50 cents.

The object of this small guidebook is not so much to give answer to the problems of the war and the post-war period, but rather "to tell the average citizen what has happened to our economy in war and what the chief issues of the coming peace are likely to be—and why." Subjects discussed include international relations, industry and business, transportation, finance, agriculture, labor, public works and urban redevelopment, housing, health, education, and economic security.

Facing realities. By Elliott M. Little. Ottawa, Department of Labor, [1942]. 15 pp.

Address delivered before the Canadian Congress of Labor by the director of National Selective Service in Canada.

Labor responsibilities in wartime. By Elliott M. Little. [Ottawa, Director of Public Information, 1942.] 15 pp.

Address delivered before the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada.

Transport goes to war: The official story of British transport, 1939-1942. London, Ministry of Information (for Ministry of War Transport), 1942. 79 pp., illus. 1s.

Shows the importance of road and water transport in the war and the way in which the labor force has carried on.

Women in Industry

Gainfully employed women in Chicago. By Erna Magnus. (In Social Security Bulletin, U. S. Social Security Board, Washington, April 1943, pp. 3-17.) 20 cents, Superintendent of Documents, Washington.

Two important factors in connection with present labor-market developments are disclosed in this report: (1) The extent to which young women in the domestic sample shifted between domestic service and employments covered by the Social Security Act; and (2) the extent of the movement in and out of the labor market of married women in the various occupational groups, which indicates the mobile boundaries between the active and reserve labor supply at any given period.

Problems of women working. (In Modern Industry, New York, April 15, 1943, pp. 38-41 et seq.; illus. 25 cents.)

Clear patterns helpful to management in securing maximum efficiency from woman labor are now emerging. In the last 2 years great steps forward have been made along this line. The article listed here tells about this progress.

Recruiting, selecting, training women for automotive maintenance service. Detroit, Studebaker Corp., 1943. 66 pp.

Womanpower: A digest of facts pertaining to the employment of women in war industries. Chicago, George S. May Business Foundation, [1942?]. 12 pp., illus. (Report No. 136.)

Among the subjects taken up in this pamphlet are potential sources of industrial womanpower, factory re-engineering to accommodate woman workers, training, industrial hygiene, child-care problems, and rating women's work output.

Women in battle dress. By Russell Birdwell. New York, Fine Editions Press, 1942. 198 pp., illus. \$2.

Tells of women's war activities, mainly in Great Britain. Two chapters deal with such activities in the United States, and the final chapter refers briefly to the heroic work of the Chinese, Russian, and Serbian women.

Canadian women in the war effort. By Charlotte Whitton. Toronto, Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd., 1942. 57 pp., illus. 50 cents (Canadian currency).

Describes the official and private war organizations for women and the services performed, and gives information on conditions of employment in certain of the organizations.

Women in shipbuilding. London, Ministry of Labor and National Service, 1943. 33 pp., illus.

Shows the various types of skilled and semiskilled work on which women have been successfully employed in British shipyards, and calls attention to the possibilities of using them in many other occupations for which they were previously considered unfitted.

General Reports

Report of the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on industrial and Labor Conditions. Albany, 1943. 265 pp. (Legislative document, 1943, No. 39.)

In continuing the committee for its fifth year, the New York Legislature in 1942 added to the committee's previous duties consideration of "the role of Government in New York State . . . in anticipation of the post-war reconstruction period." The report contains a chapter discussing the problems which are likely to follow the war and makes recommendations as to how New York State may cope with them. Full employment, women in industry, and organization for post-war planning are among the matters considered.

Handbook of Latin American studies, 1941: A selective guide to the material published in 1941 on anthropology, archives, art, economics, etc. Edited by Miron Burgin. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1942. 649 pp. (No. 7.)

Annotated record of publications in the Latin American field in 1941. The section of the volume devoted to labor and social welfare, prepared by Gustavo-Adolfo Rohen y Gálvez, includes references to material on labor conditions, industrial relations, social security, welfare standards, etc.

English text of report submitted on March 14, 1943, to the Bolivian Government by the Joint United States-Bolivian Commission of Labor Experts. [Washington, U. S. Department of State, 1943.] 51 pp.; mimeographed. Free.

The commission visited mining, agricultural, rubber, and factory areas of Bolivia, with emphasis on the mining industry. The report gives the findings and recommendations of the commission concerning collective bargaining, minimum wages, hours of work, social insurance, placement of workers, housing, and health.

Labor conditions in French North Africa. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 18 pp. (Serial No. R. 1530; reprinted from May 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

Official publications of present-day Germany—Government, corporate organizations, and National Socialist Party—with an outline of the governmental structure of Germany. By Otto Neuberger, Division of Documents, Library of Congress. Washington, U. S. Government Printing Office, 1942. 130 pp. 20 cents.

Names of issuing offices and organizations are given in both German and English, as are also many of the publication titles.

Reports of executive committee, gold producers' committee, and collieries committee of Transvaal Chamber of Mines for year 1942. Johannesburg, Transvaal Chamber of Mines, 1943. 31 pp.

Contains sections on native labor, the mining unions, and miners' phthisis.

Summarized departmental report of Department of Labor of Union of South Africa, 1941. Pretoria, [1942]. 12 pp. (In Dutch and English.)

Covers the activities of the Department of Labor in administering the labor laws, with particular reference to control of industrial manpower in wartime.

Labor conditions in Hungary. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1943. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 1541; reprinted from June 1943 Monthly Labor Review.) Free.

New Zealand: A selected list of references. Compiled by Helen F. Conover. Washington, Library of Congress, Division of Bibliography, 1942. 68 pp.; mimeographed. Limited free distribution.

References to publications on labor subjects are included.

Development and welfare in the West Indies, 1940-1942. By Sir Frank Stockdale. London, Colonial Office, 1943. 93 pp. (Colonial No. 184.) 1s. 6d.

Report of the Comptroller for Development and Welfare in the West Indies dealing with the work accomplished, the most pressing needs in the different colonies, and ways of meeting these needs. Includes chapters on public health, agriculture, labor, social welfare, and education.

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Bureau of Labor Statistics

Wage rates of union street-railway employees, June 1, 1942. (Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1943.) Bulletin No. 731. Price, 5 cents.

Wages in the rubber manufacturing industry, August 1942. (Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, February-March 1943.) Bulletin No. 737. Price, 10 cents.

Developments in consumers' cooperation in 1942. (Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1943.) Bulletin No. 738. Price, 5 cents.

Student cooperatives in the United States, 1941. (Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1943, with additional data.) Bulletin No. 740. Price, 10 cents.

Effects of incentive payments on hourly earnings. (Reprinted from *Monthly Labor Review*, May 1943.) Bulletin No. 742. Price, 5 cents.

Children's Bureau

Standards and recommendations for hospital care of newborn infants—full-time and premature. Publication No. 132. Price 5 cents.

Which jobs for young workers? No. 6—Advisory standards for welding occupations. (Obtainable in Children's Bureau.)

Division of Labor Standards

A guide to the prevention of work-related injuries. Special Bulletin No. 11. Price, 10 cents.

Controlling absenteeism. A manual of work place experience. Special Bulletin No. 12. Price, 10 cents.